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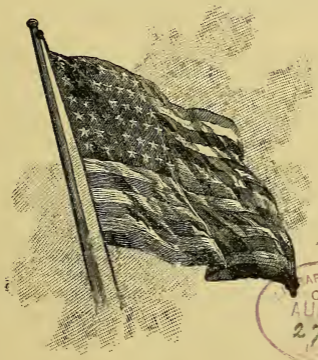
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

THE POPULAR SERIES

ADVANCED GRAMMAR

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE



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PREFACE.

THIS book is designed to follow the Elementary English Grammar of the *Popular Series*. At the same time, it constitutes in itself a complete one-book course for more advanced pupils.

The fundamental principles on which the smaller book is based form the groundwork of this volume as well. The aim has been in all cases to impress upon the pupil's mind the fact that the *thought* is the essential thing, and that language, important as it is, is but secondary to the idea to be expressed by language.

It is to be regretted that too often pupils lose the real benefit of their studies by the perverted use they make of them. To them a rule is a disagreeable necessity, not a valuable aid in their work.

This book aims to show that the purpose of rules in grammar is solely to make plain and clear the principles of the language. In order to accomplish this end, every step is thoroughly explained and illustrated before any rule is given. The pupil is not *allowed* to have a definition, a rule, or a formula until he actually feels the need of it—until he has thoroughly mastered the thought underlying the words, and is able to appreciate the fact that it is, after all, "what oft was thought, but ne'er so well expressed." It thus becomes to him a privilege rather than a burden.

On the other hand, when a rule or definition is once mastered, the pupil is not permitted to throw it aside as so

much useless matter—as something he only studied for the sake of study—but each subsequent definition or rule is in effect a review of those preceding.

In the analysis of sentences it is to be noted that the form differs from that presented in the elementary book. The pupil should clearly understand that there is no peculiar virtue in any one system of diagrams. All are good if they make clear to the eye the relations of the various parts, and pupils should be encouraged to devise new methods for themselves.

Special attention is called to the gradation and literary character of the sentences selected for analysis, parsing, etc. The design has been not merely to use such as would best illustrate the point in view, but also to inculcate a love for good literature by supplying none but excellent thoughts. This is the case throughout the book, but especially so in the section on Prose Composition. Here it has been deemed wiser to give at length a few of the great literary selections rather than to include a number of short extracts, too short to serve either as good illustrations or to show the style of the author.

In the section on Letter Writing a few characteristic models have been given.

Due space is given to Punctuation, and its importance in determining grammatical relations is clearly set forth.

Under the head of “Errors to be Avoided,” the student’s attention is called to many points which would be apt to escape his notice.

The book closes with a brief discussion of the principles of Versification.

It is dedicated to the children of our public schools, in the hope that it may lighten their labors and help them to master the intricacies of our language.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

INTRODUCTION.

I. MEANING AND OBJECT OF GRAMMAR.

1. **Good English** is that form and construction of English speech which is used by the majority of the cultivated people who speak and write the language. This manner of use is called *established usage*.

Our language is called the **English Language**, because it originated with the people of England, and is spoken by the American and other descendants of the English people.

The English language is the outgrowth and representative of the Anglo-Saxon. It has lost many of the words and features of that language, and has added much borrowed from other languages, yet the English words in most familiar use have come from the Anglo-Saxon.

After the Angles and Saxons had entered Britain, they were brought into contact with many other nations, and thus words from various other languages were assimilated. Chief among these foreign elements are: the Danish, Dutch, Celtic, German, French, Latin, and Greek.

The established usage for us is that which is the usage of the best writers at the *present time*. What was good English five hundred years ago would not be considered good English now; and, similarly, what is good English now would not have been so considered five hundred years ago.

To illustrate this, compare a number of selections representing the best usage in the English language at various stages in its growth, such as are given on the two following pages.

The following extract from the *Saxon Chronicle* (1154) illustrates the *Anglo-Saxon Period*, from the first coming of Saxons and Angles to the middle of the twelfth century :

On this yær wærd the King Stephen ded, and bebyried there his wif and his sune wæron bebyried æt Tauresfeld. That ministre hi makiden. Tha the king was ded, tha was the eorl beionde sæe. And ne durste nan man don other bute god for the micel eie of him. Tha he to Engleland come, tha was he underfangen mid micel wortsceipe ; and to king bletcæd in Lundine, on the Sunnen dæi beforen mid-winter-dæi.*

The following by Sir John Mandeville (1300-1372) illustrates the *Early English Period*, from the middle of the twelfth century to the middle of the fourteenth :

And therefore I shalle telle you what the Soudan tolde me upon a day, in his chambre. He leet voyden out of his chambre alle maner of men, lordes and othere; for he wolde spake with me in conseille. And there he asked me, how the Cristene men governed hem in oure contree. And I seyde him, righte wel, thonked be God. And he said, treulyche nay; for ye Cristene men no reethen righte noghte how untrewly to serve God.

The following by William Caxton (1412-1441) illustrates the *Middle English Period*, from the middle of the fourteenth century to the middle of the sixteenth:

Happened that to my hand came a lytyl booke in Frenche, whiche late was translated out of Latyn by some noble clerke of Fraunce, which booke is named *Eneydos* (made in Latyn by that noble poete and grete clerke Vyrgyle) whiche book I sawe over and redde therein. In whiche booke I had grete playsyr, by cause of the fayr and honest termes and wordes in Frenche, which I never sawe to fore-lyke, ne none so playsant ne so well ordred.

* In this year was the King Stephen dead, and buried where his wife and his son were buried, at Touresfield. That minister (minster or monastery) they made. When the king was dead, then was the earl beyond sea. And not durst no man do other but good for the great awe of him. When he to England came, then was he received with great worship ; and to king consecrated in London, on the Sunday before mid-winter-day (Christmas-day).

The following by Lord Bacon (1561–1626) and Ralph Waldo Emerson (1803–1882) illustrate the *Modern English Period*, from the middle of the sixteenth century to the present time :

If the invention of the ship was thought so noble, which carrieth riches and commodities from place to place, and consociateth the most remote regions in participation of their fruits, how much more are letters to be magnified, which, as ships, pass through the vast seas of time, and make ages so distant participate of the wisdom, illuminations, and inventions, the one of the other !—*Bacon*.

A great man is always willing to be little. Whilst he sits on the cushion of advantages, he goes to sleep. When he is pushed, tormented, defeated, he has a chance to learn something; he has been put on his wits; on his manhood; he has gained facts; learns his ignorance; is cured of the insanity of conceit; has got moderation and real skill.—*Emerson*.

2. By observing the uses of different classes of words, practical laws, or principles of use, are discovered, according to which the words and expressions of the language are employed so as to secure the best objects of speech.

From these principles, rules are formed to guide the speaker and writer in the correct use, and to aid him in avoiding the incorrect use of the language.

The words of the language are grouped in classes, separated according to the likeness and difference of their uses; just as animals and plants are divided into classes by likeness and difference of structure and use. One kind of words is found to be employed for one purpose, and another kind of words for a different purpose.

Principles and rules of speech are not invented by any one. They are **discovered** in the language itself. Only the particular forms in which they are stated are invented.

3. *The established usage of the language, and the principles and rules that govern such usage, when arranged in systematic order, constitute what is called grammar.*

Under this aspect grammar is a **science**—something to be studied and learned.

Among the objects sought in the study of grammar is the practical one of an acquaintance with the principles which govern the correct forms of speech, so that we may know how to use good English and how to avoid bad English. Correct use itself can only be attained by practice and habit.

Under this aspect, grammar is an **art**—something to be done and practiced.

4. The general form in which language is uttered or written is that of a collection of words called a **sentence**. The sentence is the whole or unit of speech. The sentence is composed of words classified under the general name of **parts of speech**.

5. Correct spelling and pronunciation are, for the sake of convenience, included under the name of **Orthography**.

6. The classification, derivation, and uses of words are referred to as **Etymology**.

7. The relation of words to one another, according to which they form complete speech, or the sentence, is called **Syntax**.

8. The proper construction of speech in the form of verse is called **Prosody**.

These four subjects constitute the main divisions under which grammar is treated.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the term English language; established usage; the classification of words and forms of expression. How are the principles of language obtained? From what are rules formed and what is their use? Explain: what is meant by grammar; the object of its study. How is correct use attained? What are the two aspects of grammar? State: the general form or unit of language; of what it is composed; what is included in orthography; in etymology; in syntax; in prosody.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

II. THE COMPOSITION OF WORDS.

9. The origin of the **alphabet**, or letters representing sounds, is very ancient. Pictures rudely resembling objects were the first written representations of things. For example, a figure like a star (*) was made to represent a heavenly body; and such a figure, under a curve to represent the arch of the heavens (⊗), signified “night.”

In time, pictures came to be made so rapidly as to lose their resemblance to objects, and were finally employed to denote only the initial sound of the spoken name belonging to the original object; as the *s* in *star*, and the *n* in *night*. Thus arose the first alphabet of any language, probably in Egypt.

10. **Spoken language**, to be understood, must be pronounced according to some established standard. The treatment of pronunciation is called **orthoepy**.

11. **Written language**, to be understood, must employ words spelled according to a uniform standard.

12. **Orthography**, strictly considered, embraces only the **correct writing** of words; but custom has enlarged its scope so as to include **correct pronunciation** also.

13. *Orthography treats of letters and syllables, and teaches the spelling and pronunciation of words.*

The treatment of this subject by dictionaries, readers, and spelling books makes it unnecessary to dwell upon it in this book except so far as the forms of words are affected by grammatical change.

The letters of the English language, called, when arranged in order, the **alphabet**, are twenty-six in number, and are divided into **vowels** and **consonants**.

The **vowels** are *a, e, i, o, u*, and are used to represent pure sounds, called **vocals**, made with the vocal organs open. The combination of two vowels makes a sound called a **diphthong**. The letters *w* and *y*, when used before a vowel sound in the same syllable, are consonants; in all other uses they are vowels. All letters but those named are called **consonants**.

Consonants represent sounds that are articulated by the use of the vocal organs—the lips, tongue, and palate—in contrast with vowels, which are sounded with these organs open.

Consonants are divided into **subvocals**, such as *b, d, l*, etc., which are sounded by obstructions from the lips, tongue, etc.; and **aspirates**, like *p, t, h*, which are sounded merely by the breath regulated by the lips, teeth, etc.

14. A **syllable** is a sound represented by one or more letters pronounced by a single impulse of the voice, and forming a word or a part of a word; as,

I, man, man-li-ness.

A syllable properly consists of a vowel, either alone or accompanied by consonants, and separated by these or by an hiatus from any other vowel.

15. A **word** is composed of one syllable or more; as,

man, manliness.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the origin of an alphabet; orthoepy; orthography; the difference between vowels and consonants; a diphthong. State: the number of letters; of vowels; of consonants. Explain: vocals; subvocals; a syllable; the composition of a word.

III. WORDS IN THE SENTENCE.

16. Whatever is presented to the senses—a tree, a man, or a sound—is an object.

The forms of objects are retained by the mind even when the objects themselves are not present to the senses. These mental pictures are

called ideas. They are also called things, because whatever the mind thinks of is a thing ; as, a man, a tree, or a feeling of pain.

17. Many objects, whether observed by the senses or held by the mind as ideas, may be represented by pictures ; but the way in which objects or things are usually represented is by spoken sounds or written signs called words.

These words bear no resemblance in form to the things or ideas for which they stand. They are merely sounds or signs to be heard or read ; and when uttered or read they call to mind the things or ideas which they represent.

Words are the signs of ideas.

18. When the mind dwells upon an object, thing, or idea, this object, thing, or idea is a **subject**, about which the mind thinks.

That which the mind thinks about a subject is a **thought**.

To put the thought into words requires words of different meanings or uses. If the subject be a tree, and the thought about the tree that it grows, *tree* is one kind of word, and *grows* is quite another kind of word. *Tree* is the name of the subject, and *grows* is a word which declares something about the subject.

A tree grows.

This is the whole thought expressed in words.

Other sorts of words may be used to give the thought a wider or more definite expression. The word *young* is a different kind of word from either the name *tree* or the declarative word *grows*. Added to *tree*, it expresses a quality or kind of tree.

A young tree grows.

Still another kind of word may be used to add an idea of manner to the word *grows*.

A young tree grows rapidly.

19. Expressing a thought in words requires the selection of different kinds of words.

The way in which different kinds of words are arranged is important to the expression of a thought clearly and truly.

Grows a rapidly young tree.

This arrangement of the words confuses the thought, because the words that appropriately belong together are separated.

20. To form a sentence, it is necessary that the words selected should be properly arranged so as to express the thought intended.

A sentence is a collection of words so selected and arranged as to express a thought.

21. The essential parts of a sentence are a word or words to name the **subject** of thought, and a **predicate-word** to declare what is thought of the subject.

The shortest sentence is composed of two words ; as,

Trees grow.

Any group of words containing these two parts of speech, for the subject and the predicate, possesses the essential elements of a sentence. Other kinds of words may be added to these to explain or define them ; as,

The apple trees grow in the orchard.

22. All speaking, whether in conversation or in written discourse, is carried on by sentences. To understand the language, therefore, is to learn the structure of sentences and the classes and uses of the parts of speech that compose them.

The sentence is the whole of speech ; and the kinds of words that compose the sentence are the parts of speech.

ETYMOLOGY.

23. The correct use of words and sentences may be acquired by imitating the speech of those who speak well.

But before a knowledge of the structure of sentences can be thoroughly acquired, the classes of words, something of their origin and changes of form, and the peculiarities of their use, or their properties, must be understood. The part of grammar that treats of these subjects is called **etymology**.

Etymology treats of the classification, derivation, and properties of words.

Under these three heads, **classification, derivation, and properties**, the subject of etymology is to be learned.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: object; idea; thing; two ways of representation. Define *word*. Explain: subject; thought; what the mind thinks about a subject; the difference between *tree* and *grows*; the two together; the use of words added to these two; what the expression of a thought requires; two things that constitute a sentence. Define *sentence*. Name its essential parts; the whole of speech and its parts. Explain: what is necessary to understand the structure of sentences. Define *etymology*.

 THE CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

IV. THE NOUN.

24. In the following sentence it is not difficult to point out several different classes of words :

*The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
 The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,
 The plowman homeward plods his weary way,
 And leaves the world to darkness and to me.*

It is readily seen that *curfew, knell, day, herd, plowman, world, darkness*, are different kinds of words from *The, tolls, parting, of, plods, leaves, to*.

The former are **names of things** apparent to the senses, while the latter **declare** or help to declare something of some of the objects expressed by these names. In each instance the subject, or the name of the thing spoken of, is easily pointed out; and the word that declares is as easily discovered. *Curfew tolls, herd winds, plowman plods*, are the essential parts of the sentence.

*The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour:
The paths of glory lead but to the grave.*

In these lines there are more names, and some of them are names of a different kind of things—things not directly or definitely presented as objects to the senses.

Boast, heraldry, pomp, power, beauty, wealth, glory, are **names of things** as truly as are *curfew* or *knell* which can be heard. And when it is said that *Thomas Gray, of England*, is the author of the verses, we have still another kind of names denoting a particular person and a particular place.

25. Since all the names pointed out are alike in being the names of things presented to the mind, or ideas, we give them a general title, by which they are distinguished from all other kinds of words, and call them **nouns**.

A noun is the name of anything.

26. Having given to the different kinds of names one general title to designate that characteristic in which they all agree, we may now find titles to denote the respects in which they differ, and name the different kinds of nouns.

27. Among the examples given, *day* and *plowman* are

names that apply either to whole classes of things, or to any one of a class. The same may be said of *curfew*, *knell*, *way*, or of other similar names, such as *dog*, *boy*, *tree*, or *country*. Names which, like these, are common to all the individuals of a class are called **common nouns**.

A common noun is the name of a class, or of any one of a class of things.

28. A particular individual of a class may be singled out and have a name peculiar to itself; as, of days, *Sunday*, *Monday*; of plowmen, *John*, *Charles*; of poets, *Thomas Gray*; of countries, *England*, and so forth. This kind of noun is called a **proper noun**.

A proper noun is a name peculiar to an individual.

29. Some nouns, again, are names of groups or collections of things, and apply to a class of such groups, but not to any one individual in a group. *Herd* is such a noun. It may mean a herd of horses, cattle, or swine. It is a common noun, but a special kind of common noun, called a **collective noun**.

A collective noun is the name of a group or collection of single things, but is not applicable to any one of a group.

30. Another class of common nouns includes those which are the names of qualities considered abstractly, or as separated from special objects; as, *beauty*, *honesty*, *happiness*. These are called **abstract nouns**.

31. From examples already given, it is plain that the **subject** of a sentence is a word that is the name of something; in this respect it differs from the **predicate**, which is a word that declares something. The noun is the only word that is the name of anything, and the subject, therefore, must be a noun or something used for a noun.

The noun names the subject of the thought.

32. A noun standing alone as subject is called the **simple subject**.

Children play.

Together with modifying words it forms the complete or **modified subject**; as,

The happy little children play.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain : the distinguishing characteristic of a noun ; of the two kinds of words noticed in the first stanza quoted ; the kind of names referred to in the second stanza ; the general term for all. Define *noun*. Point out, explain, and define *common noun* ; *proper noun* ; *collective noun* ; *abstract noun*. What important relation does the noun bear to the sentence ? The *simple* and *modified* subjects, what ?

Exercise.

33. Point out and classify the nouns as common, proper, etc., and designate the kind of noun that is not found ; also point out those that are subjects of sentences.

The sun upon the lake is low,
 The wild birds hush their song,
 The hills have evening's deepest glow,
 Yet Leonard tarries long.
 Now all whom varied toil and care
 From home and love divide,
 In the calm sunset may repair
 Each to the loved one's side.

The noble dame on turret high,
 Who waits her gallant knight,
 Looks to the western beam to spy
 The flash of armor bright.
 The village maid, with hand on brow
 The level ray to shade,
 Upon the footpath watches now
 For Colin's darkening plaid.

Now to their mates the wild swans row,
 By day they swam apart,
 And to the thicket wanders slow
 The hind beside the hart.
 The woodlark at his partner's side
 Twitters his closing song—
 All meet whom day and care divide ;
 But Leonard tarries long !

Sir Walter Scott.

Exercise.

34. Form short sentences containing nouns which are names of *places, persons, animals* ; of things apparent to the senses—*sea, landscape, flower, fragrance* ; of qualities—*virtue, courage*, etc. ; of collections—*flock, herd*, etc. State the class of each noun, and the subject of each sentence.

V. THE PRONOUN.

35. The sentence must have a **noun** to name the subject of thought, and a **verb** for its predicate to declare something of the subject. No other kind of word can take the place of the verb for the predicate, but the noun is not the only kind of word that may represent the subject.

The man was called. He came.

Here the word *he* in the second sentence is used instead of the noun *man*, which except for this word *he* must have been repeated. The word thus used for or instead of the noun is called a **pronoun**.

The pronoun performs an office of convenience and economy. Thus, it is a shorter and pleasanter form of expression to say,

The apple-tree grows ; it blossoms ; it bears fruit,

than to say,

The apple-tree grows ; the apple-tree blossoms ; the apple-tree bears fruit.

A pronoun is a word that is used instead of a noun.

36. The pronoun, like the noun, may be used as the **subject** of a sentence.

37. The principal pronouns are *I, you, he, she, it, we, they*. To express various relations in the sentence, these pronouns have changes of form ; as, *my, me ; your, yours ; his, him ; her, hers ; its ; our, ours, us ; their, them*.

SYNOPSIS.—What kind of word, if any, besides the verb, can be used for the predicate ? Is the noun the only word that may be the subject ? Explain : the use of *he* in the examples given ; the office of the pronoun. Define *pronoun*. State : its possible use in the sentence ; some leading pronouns.

Exercise.

38. Point out the pronouns, and name the nouns for which they are used. Designate pronouns that are used for subjects. Write nouns in place of the pronouns.

1. Bid me to live, and I will live.
2. Fair daffodils, we weep to see
You haste away so soon.
3. The swallow, oft, beneath my thatch
Shall twitter from her clay-built nest.
4. By others' faults, wise men correct their own.
5. One morn I missed him on the 'customed hill,
Along the heath, and near his favorite tree ;
Another came ; nor yet beside the rill,
Nor up the lawn, nor at the wood was he.
6. O, what a fall was there, my countrymen !
Then I, and you, and all of us fell down.

Exercise.

39. Form sentences containing nouns, and pronouns used for them. Descriptions of persons, places, animals, abound in pronouns used to avoid repetition of the subjects. A sentence expressing ignorance of any subject may answer the purpose ; as,

“ I forget about Juan Fernandez. It may be the name of a man, or of an island. If a man, I do not know when he lived ; if an island, I am ignorant of its location.”

SUBJECTS SUGGESTED :

- | | |
|----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. Robinson Crusoe | 6. Cortes |
| 2. Defoe | 7. Mexico |
| 3. Alexander Selkirk | 8. Pizarro |
| 4. Chili | 9. Balboa |
| 5. Peru | 10. The Forty Thieves |

VI. THE VERB.

40. The **verb** is the only word that asserts or declares something of an idea or subject, and it is the main word in the expression of a thought.

Men, good men, strong men.

These are expressions of ideas, varied and different in each case, but none of them expresses a thought.

41. An expressed thought is a **declaration**.

Men walk. Good men act. Strong men endure.

These are expressions of thoughts, because in each of them something is declared about a subject.

A verb is a word that declares or asserts.

Whether the verb declares action or being depends upon its meaning, or upon its use in each particular case.

In the foregoing examples, *walk* and *act* declare a condition of action rather than a positive action. *Endure* declares a condition of being.

Troy was.

Here the verb *was* simply declares being.

Good men act their parts well.

Here the verb *act* declares positive action, and is followed by a noun, *parts*, which names the object receiving the action, and makes the declaration definite.

42. Because the verb declares, it is called the **predicate** of a sentence, predicate meaning "that which declares." By itself alone, it is the **simple predicate**; with other words, which define, explain, or modify its meaning, it constitutes the complete, or **modified predicate**.

The predicate of a sentence is a verb.

43. Some verbs, like the verb **be**, of which **is**, **are**, **was**, **are** forms, are seldom used alone as predicates; as,

Washington was president. Love is divine.

In these cases a noun or an adjective is required to complete the predicate.

Exercise.

44. Write the sentences, and point out or underscore the simple subject and the simple predicate, separating them by a vertical line; and state whether the verb declares action or being. Examples 10 and 14 contain no expressed subjects.

1. *Truth | conquers.*

This is a sentence, because it expresses a thought. *Truth*

is a noun and subject ; *conquers* is a verb, because it declares ; in this case it declares the power of action.

2. Virtue conquers envy. (*Conquers* in this case declares action, and the noun *envy* denotes that which receives the action.)
3. He fears shame.
4. Moderate things last.
5. Trees bear fruit.
6. Virtue alone assists me.
7. Friendship is the cement of two minds.
8. Art is the child of nature.
9. Honors change manners.
10. Do not spur a free horse.
11. Hunger teaches many things.
12. Worth makes the man.
13. Books think for me.
14. Love all ; trust a few ; do wrong to none.
15. The birds enjoy the open air.
16. Patience conquers all things.
17. All animals have feeling.

Exercise.

45. Form short sentences containing verbs, and describe the verbs.

EXAMPLE.—1. *wedding*.—*The wedding occurred yesterday.*

- | | |
|-------------|----------------------|
| 2. work | 9. stars |
| 3. trees | 10. reading |
| 4. crops | 11. money |
| 5. the sun | 12. furniture |
| 6. truth | 13. books |
| 7. beauty | 14. what you like |
| 8. pleasure | 15. what you dislike |

SYNOPSIS.—Explain : principal word in sentence, contrasted with other words. Define *verb*. How decide what it declares ? Explain ; predicate ; simple predicate ; modified predicate ; the declaration of verb *be*.

VII. THE ADJECTIVE.

46. A noun and a verb, or a pronoun and a verb may constitute a sentence ; as,

Men walk. They walk.

No other kind of word than a noun or pronoun, with a verb, can make a sentence. Hence the **noun**, **pronoun**, and **verb** are the **main parts of speech** that form the sentence, or whole of speech.

47. All other kinds of words, or parts of speech, are **helping words** that aid these three kinds in expressing thoughts, and are dependent on the principal words for their meaning or force in the sentence.

48. *The, this, a, good, strong, sweet, sour,* are words which help nouns and pronouns to represent more definite ideas than they denote when standing alone.

This man, a man.

This and *a* point out or direct attention to some particular man.

Good man, strong man, sweet apple.

Good, strong, and *sweet* add an idea of a particular quality to the meaning of the nouns, and limit their meaning by separating the objects from all other men and apples. Thus they qualify the nouns by describing or **adding to** their meaning, and are called **adjectives**.

An adjective is a word used to qualify a noun or pronoun.

49. The adjectives *a, an,* and *the* are sometimes classed separately, and called **articles** ; *the* being the **definite article**, and *an* and *a* being the **indefinite articles**.

An is used before vowel sounds ; *a* before consonant sounds ; as,

an egg, an hour ; a man, a horse.

An is used before an aspirate *h* beginning a word which is accented on any syllable but the first ; as,

an hotel, an horticulturist.

SYNOPSIS.—State : the words that may make a sentence ; the main words, and what are helping words. Explain : the use of such words as, *the, strong*, etc. Define *adjective*. Give another class name for *an* and *the*, and the use of *an* and *a*.

Exercise.

50. Point out, or write and underscore, the adjectives in this exercise, and the nouns which they qualify.

1. They come with hands inactive and a careless eye.
2. The bold bird her helpless young attends.
3. The locust tree has a straight, lofty stem covered with a thick, deeply and irregularly furrowed bark, and strong, rude branches, ending in slender, green spray, which is clothed in summer with a soft, velvety foliage, and with a profusion of fragrant, pendent blossoms.
4. Doctor Samuel Johnson had strong sense, quick discernment, wit, humor, immense knowledge of literature and of life, and an infinite store of curious anecdotes.
5. Douglas Jerrold was a man of large heart, as well as of great original genius.

VIII. THE ADJECTIVE AS QUALIFIER AND MODIFIER.

51. The **adjective** qualifies a noun by adding to it some idea which the noun alone does not express. When the noun is spoken of in a broader sense as the subject, or one of the main parts of the sentence, the adjective which qualifies it is referred to as a modifier of the subject.

The terms **qualify** and **qualifier** are used in relation to single words, phrases, or clauses, and the terms **modify** and **modifier** are used in relation to the main parts of a sentence.

52. An adjective may qualify any noun in a sentence, and thus may form a part either of the modified subject or of the modified predicate ; as,

The good man performs good deeds.

Here *good* is both a subject and a predicate modifier.

The verb *be*, used in its various forms *am, is, was, are, etc.*, is a peculiar verb, because, as predicate, it does not usually declare completely.

The man is.

In this sentence some word is needed to help the predicate *is* to declare complete sense. A noun may be added ; as,

The man is governor.

Here the noun *governor*, by the help of the verb *is*, explains or qualifies the noun *man*. It also completes the declaration of the verb *is*, thus modifying the predicate. When so used, a noun is called a **predicate noun**.

53. In like manner, the adjective may be used to complete the declaration of the verb *be* ; as,

Man is mortal.

Here the adjective *mortal* qualifies the noun *man*. It also completes the declaration of the verb *is*, and thus modifies the predicate.

In this way the adjective helps the verb to declare completely, and the verb helps the adjective to assert a quality of the noun.

An adjective so used is called a **predicate adjective**.

An adjective used to complete the declaration of a verb,

and thus to qualify the subject noun, is called a predicate adjective.

Sometimes the predicate adjective, to render it more emphatic, is placed before the verb ; as,

Sweet are the uses of adversity.

It is mainly as a predicate word that the adjective qualifies a pronoun—not directly, but through the help of a verb ; as,

We are comfortable.

They are beautiful.

We would not say,

comfortable we, or beautiful they.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain : difference in the use of *qualify* and *modify* ; what an adjective may qualify ; what modify ; the verb *be* as predicate ; how helped by a noun ; what the noun is called ; how helped by an adjective ; what the adjective is called ; how the verb helps the noun and adjective in these cases. Define *predicate adjective*. Explain : position of predicate adjective before the verb ; the way an adjective qualifies a pronoun.

Exercise.

54. Point out the adjectives as qualifiers of nouns, as modifiers of subject or predicate, or as predicate adjectives. Note, also, any predicate nouns or pronouns.

1. *Guilt is always timid.*

Of this sentence *guilt* is the subject and *is* is the incomplete predicate. *Timid* is an adjective, qualifying the noun *guilt*, and completing the declaration of the verb *is* ; therefore a predicate adjective.

2. Small minds are won by trifles.
3. A small leak may sink a great ship.
4. Nature is content with little.
5. The llama is called the " American camel."

6. Art is long ; life is short.
7. The fiery war-horse paws the ground.
8. Books are the food of youth ; they are the charm of old age.
9. We are Americans.
10. His conversation was unusually earnest, rich and impressive.
11. I am sure about it.
12. It is I, be not afraid.

Exercise.

55. Write sentences containing predicate adjectives, nouns or pronouns.

Subjects.—Descriptions of *persons, places and occupations, and of qualities of things.*

IX. THE ADVERB.

56. Somewhat different from the adjective, but in several respects like it, is that other kind of word so often joined to a verb to express an idea of the **manner, place, time or degree** of that which the verb declares.

He acts wisely.

The man is here.

He comes now.

These are sentences in which the verb is qualified by adding such ideas.

Thus the **adverb**, as it is called, resembles an adjective in adding to the word which it qualifies some further idea. The main difference between the two is that the **adjective** usually qualifies a **noun**, while the **adverb** usually qualifies a **verb**.

Very wise men are few.

He acts very wisely.

In these sentences, the word *very* adds an **idea of degree** to the adjective *wise* and to the adverb *wisely*. It is, therefore, an **adverb**; hence we see that an adverb may also qualify an **adjective** or another **adverb**.

An adverb is a word used to qualify a verb; also an adjective or another adverb.

Exercise.

57. Point out the adverbs and the parts of speech which they qualify. Review the examples and distinguish all the parts of speech, so far as learned.

1. I am not quite sure which of the two is the better.
2. He complained bitterly of the rudeness of his age.
3. His conversation was unusually earnest.
4. No man ever spoke more neatly, more compactly, more weightily, or suffered less emptiness, less idleness in what he uttered.
5. His character is easily understood.
6. He was eminently social in his disposition.
7. He gives twice who gives quickly.
8. Tears sometimes have the weight of words.
9. Things ill acquired are ill expended.
10. He labors vainly who tries to please everybody.

Exercise.

58. Write sentences containing adverbs as qualifiers of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

Subject.—The character and acts of men and women; as, *Washington, Columbus, Arnold, Lincoln, Queen Elizabeth, Maria Theresa, etc.*

SYNOPSIS.—**Explain**: difference between adverb and adjective; points of resemblance; different parts of speech the adverb qualifies. Define *adverb*.

X. THE PREPOSITION.

59. *I am ready for you.*

In this sentence the importance of the word *for* is realized when it is omitted. Then the sentence is without sense, since *for* is necessary to explain the meaning of *ready* in relation to the meaning of *you*, and the meaning of *you* in relation to the meaning of *ready*.

The son of man.

In this expression the word *of* is necessary to both nouns, *son* and *man*, in order that either of them may have the meaning intended.

In the same way, a relation between the meanings of the verb *ran* and the noun *barn* is expressed by the word *into* in the sentence,

The boys ran into the barn.

60. The **preposition** is a connecting word, and it is by joining nouns or pronouns to other words that it shows the relation between the objects expressed by the nouns or pronouns and the ideas represented by the words to which it joins them.

A preposition connects a noun or pronoun with some other word, and shows the relation of the idea expressed by the noun or pronoun to that expressed by the word to which the noun or pronoun is joined.

61. The preposition gives rise to groups of closely related words, of which it usually forms the first member, but the words of themselves do not form a sentence ; as,

<i>up the hill,</i>	<i>by yourself,</i>
<i>with the men,</i>	<i>in the light.</i>

Such expressions are called **phrases**.

A phrase is a group of closely related words having the force of a single part of speech, but not of themselves forming a sentence.

62. Nouns and pronouns thus formed with prepositions into phrases, become qualifiers, like adjectives, and are used to qualify nouns.

cloth of gold, linen from Germany.

These expressions are equivalent to

golden cloth, German linen.

The phrases *of gold*, etc., have the force of adjectives.

63. The prepositional phrase may have the effect of an adverb qualifying a verb.

*He speaks with force.
She is dressed with taste.*

These expressions are equivalent to

*He speaks forcibly.
She is dressed tastefully.*

64. The preposition *to* combines with a verb to form a phrase which is equivalent to a noun.

*To lie is wrong.
To forgive is divine.
We desire to know.*

These expressions are equivalent to

*Lying is wrong.
Forgiveness is divine.
We desire knowledge.*

65. The principal prepositions are :

about	beside	into	till
above	besides	instead of	to
across	between	notwithstanding	touching
after	betwixt	of	toward
against	beyond	off	towards
along	by	on	under
amid	concerning	over	underneath
among	down	out of	until
around	during	regarding	unto
at	except	respecting	up
before	excepting	round	upon
behind	for	since	with
below	from	through	within
beneath	in	throughout	without

66. *But, save, than, near, and nigh* are sometimes used as prepositions.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain, by examples, the importance and use of the preposition. Define *preposition*. Explain : and define *phrase*; the new use of nouns and pronouns, as qualifiers; the prepositional phrase; the verb-phrase.

Exercise.

67. Point out the prepositions, with the words they connect and between which they show the relation. Point out the phrases, and the parts of the sentence—subject or predicate—which they modify. Where it can be done, change the prepositional phrases into nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

1. *The capital of a state is usually located near the center.*

Of is a preposition connecting its object *state* with the noun *capital*, and expressing the relation between the state and the capital. *Near* is a preposition connecting its object

center with the predicate *is located*, and expressing the relation between the center and the location.

In the second sentence the phrase "*by the garden wall*" has the force of an adverb, indicating the place of the trees.

2. The trees are by the garden wall.
3. He went by rail from New York to Boston.
4. The lark at heaven's gate sings.
5. He speaks with emphasis.
6. In the best books great men talk to us.
7. The swallow twitters about the eaves.
8. The robin sings at my door.
9. The swan in the pool is swimming.
10. The Indians of America are men of dark complexion, with long hair and black eyes.
11. A box of iron contained the treasures of gold.

Exercise.

68. Construct sentences, containing prepositions and phrases, upon :

1. journeys made
2. materials and tools used in building, dress, etc.
3. location and relation of places

XI. THE CONJUNCTION.

69. The preposition is a connecting word which shows the relation between its object and the word to which the object is joined by the preposition. The **conjunction** is also a connecting word, and is used to join **words, phrases, and entire sentences**; as,

He and I went.

Respected by friends and by foes.

He will come if you call him.

The conjunction expresses the relation of **equality or inequality of rank** between the meanings of the words, phrases, and sentences which it joins.

Conjunctions are connecting words which show equality of rank between the meanings of words and phrases, and either equality or inequality of rank between the meanings of the sentences which they join.

70. In the first two examples given in §69, the conjunction *and* joins two subjects or two predicates, making, in effect, one subject and one predicate.

Two or more simple subjects thus united, and having the same predicate, are called a **compound subject**; and two or more predicates so connected, and having the same subject, are called a **compound predicate**. A sentence may have either a compound subject or a compound predicate, or both.

Short sentences, with simple subjects and simple predicates, become tedious and occupy much unnecessary space; as,

The gentlemen came. The ladies came.
The gentlemen dined. The ladies dined.

These sentences may be condensed by compounding the subjects and predicates, thus :

The gentlemen and ladies came and dined.

The conjunction is, therefore, a word of economy.

71. A sentence is sometimes composed of two sentences, each having its own subject and predicate; as,

She came, but I remained.

When thus joined, each simple sentence is called a **clause**.

A clause is a simple sentence used to form a part of another sentence.

72. It is the office of the conjunction to join sentences as well as words ; as,

She went, I remained.

These two sentences, joined by the conjunction *but*, form what is called a **compound sentence**, which may be composed of any number of simple sentences or clauses.

73. Punctuation often takes the place of a conjunction.

The gentlemen and ladies came and dined and left.

This sentence is improved by omitting one of the *and's*, and substituting a comma ; as,

The gentlemen and ladies came, dined and left.

74. In compound subjects and predicates, a comma usually takes the place of a conjunction, except between the last two members of the compound ; as,

Trees, flowers, brooks and hills covered, diversified and adorned the landscape.

75. Between clauses forming a compound sentence, a comma or a semicolon often takes the place of the conjunction ; as,

The moon will wax, the moon will wane.

The principal conjunctions are :

also	but	neither	since	therefore
although	either	nevertheless	so	though
and	except	nor	still	unless
as	for	notwithstanding	than	whether
because	if	or	that	wherefore
both	lest	provided	then	yet.

Exercise.

76. Point out the conjunctions and the words or sentences they connect. Distinguish compound subjects, compound predicates, and compound sentences, showing where punctuation is substituted for connecting words.

1. *We hate the hawk because it always lives in arms.*

This is a compound sentence composed of two simple sentences. *Because* is a conjunction, joining the two clauses *We hate the hawk—it always, etc.*

2. *Eloquence is the language of nature, and can not be learned in the schools.*

This sentence contains a compound predicate consisting of the simple predicates *is* (incomplete) and *can be learned* joined by the conjunction *and*.

3. His virtues and faults lie on the surface.
4. The Roman shepherd, at the appearance of night, adorned his fold with branches and foliage, sprinkled his sheep with water, and offered incense and sacrifices to Pales.
5. The cat loves fish, but she will not wet her paws.
6. We live more by example than by reason.
7. The swan never sings ; and is worth little except for its beauty.
8. An enraged man is a lion ; a cunning man is a fox ; a firm man is a rock ; a learned man is a torch.
9. I may not go unless you will accompany me.
10. Notwithstanding their apparent defeat, the soldiers still fought bravely.

SYNOPSIS.—Define *conjunction*. Explain : the difference between the preposition and the conjunction ; compound subject ; compound predicate ; how many of each a sentence may contain ; condensing short sentences ; clauses. Define *clause*. Explain : compound sentence ; how the conjunction is related to it ; the use of punctuation in compounds.

Point out the prepositions and phrases in the last exercise.

Exercise.

77. Construct sentences containing conjunctions, compound subjects or predicates, or both ; sentences containing phrases or clauses—compound sentences—and explain the connectives.

1. Different persons performing the same act.
2. The same persons performing different acts.
3. Several events happening during the day.
4. Actions compared or contrasted.
5. Weapons of defence belonging to animals ; as the tusks of the elephant, teeth and claws of a cat.

XII. THE INTERJECTION.

78. The parts of speech thus far considered comprise :

The **main words** that form a sentence—**noun, pronoun, verb ;**

The **qualifying words**—**adjective, adverb ;**

The **connecting words**—**preposition, conjunction.**

Strictly considered, these are all the parts of speech that are used to form a sentence.

79. The **interjection** is not strictly a part of speech, although it is usually spoken of as such. It forms no part of the thought expressed in a sentence, but is rather a sentence in itself, thrown into the main utterance as an exclamation to express a feeling or emotion ; as,

My friend, alas ! is dead.

For this reason it receives its name **interjection**—something “**thrown between.**”

An interjection is a word used as an exclamation to express an emotion.

The principal interjections are :

adieu	begone	hey	hurrah	lo
ah	fy	hollo	hush	O
aha	ha	hist	huzza	oh
alas	hail	ho	indeed	pooch
away	halloo	hum	la	pshaw

80. Including the interjection, the parts of speech used in making the whole of speech, or the sentence, are eight : viz.,

noun	adjective	preposition	verb
pronoun	adverb	conjunction	interjection

SYNOPSIS.—State : the parts of speech learned, in groups, and characterize each group. Explain the interjection. Define *interjection*.

XIII. PARSING.

81. The **parting** of words into classes, as has been done, is called **parsing**. But classification is only one step in parsing, which includes a complete description of a word, giving its class, besides other peculiarities belonging to it, called properties, and its relations to other words in the same sentence.

Parsing is giving a complete description of a word as a part of a sentence.

82. The kinds of words have been learned. The properties of words are yet to be described. The nature of a word is given in the definition of it. Its properties, among other things, include its changes of form by which in one case it is subject, and in another it may denote possession or be the object of a verb ; as, the pronoun *I* for subject, *my* for possession, and *me* to follow a verb to define what the verb declares.

The relations of words in a sentence include the use made of the nature and properties of each word in connection with other words. It is the nature of a pronoun to stand for a noun. Parsing a pronoun is pointing out the noun for which it stands. It is a property of a pronoun to be subject or object of a verb. Parsing points out which of the two it is, if either, and what verb, or other word, it is particularly related to.

Model for Parsing.

§3. The following model presents a complete description of the eight parts of speech in a particular sentence. Until the properties of words have been learned, so much of the description only as has been learned will be used in parsing.

True virtue brings happiness to every heart, although, alas! we too often neglect it.

True is an adjective; descriptive, denoting a quality; qualifies the noun *virtue*.

virtue is a noun, a name; common, the name of each individual of a class; neuter gender, neither male nor female; third person, spoken of; singular number, denotes one; nominative case, naming the subject of the verb *brings*.

brings is a verb, declares action; irregular, principal parts, —; transitive, requiring an object to define its declaration; indicative mode, asserts a fact; present tense, denoting present time; third person, singular number, agreeing with its subject *virtue*. Rule.

happiness is a noun, —; objective case, defining the declaration of *brings*. Rule.

to is a preposition, showing the relation between the noun *heart* and the verb *brings*.

although is a conjunction, connecting the two clauses *True virtue*, etc., and *we too often*, etc.

alas is an interjection, expressing emotion, without any further relation to the sentence.

we is a pronoun ; personal, standing for a general noun, as *human beings*, not expressed ; common gender, denoting both sexes ; first person, denoting the persons speaking ; plural number, denoting more than one ; nominative case, is the subject of the verb *neglect*.

too is an adverb ; of degree, qualifying the adverb *often*.

often is an adverb ; of time, qualifying the verb *neglect*.

neglect is a verb, — ; regular, principal parts, — ; transitive, — ; indicative mode, —, agreeing with its subject *we*.

it is a pronoun ; personal, used for the noun *virtue* ; neuter gender, third person, singular, —, to agree with its noun. Rule.

XIV. EXERCISES FOR REVIEW.

84. Review the preceding lessons, and apply the principles and definitions they contain in the following exercises :

Exercise.

Speech and its Parts.

85. Point out and name the word that represents the idea thought about, and the word that represents what is thought, giving as reasons the definitions and principles taught in Chapter III. Name the parts of speech contained in each sentence, giving definitions to support the designation ; and name those parts of speech not represented. Point out the main words used for subject and predicate, and the helping words used for modifying these. Explain compound sentence, subject, and predicate. (See Chapter XI.)

1. *A large owl made its nest in a hollow tree.*

This is a sentence, because it expresses a thought (§20.) *Owl* is a word representing the idea thought about (§17). It is the subject of the sentence, because it represents that about which the mind thinks (§18). It is a noun, because it is a name (§25).

Made is the word that represents what is thought, and is therefore the predicate (§21). It is a verb, because it declares, and because it is the predicate word (§42).

These two words are the main words of the sentence. They are parts of speech, because the sentence is the whole of speech (§22).

The helping, or modifying words, are *A* and *large*, modifying the subject *owl*, and with it forming the **modified subject** (§32); also the last six words, which define, explain, or modify the predicate *made*, and with it form the **modified predicate** (§42).

A and *large* are adjectives, because they define or qualify the noun *owl* (§51).

Its is a personal pronoun, used for the noun *owl* (§35), to avoid its repetition.

Nest is a noun, naming the object of the verb *made*.

In is a preposition, because it shows the relation between the noun *tree* and the verb *made* (§60). *A* and *hollow* are adjectives, because they qualify the noun *tree*, —. *Tree* is a noun, object of the preposition *in*.

The parts of speech distinctly represented are the noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, preposition. The parts of speech not distinctly represented are the adverb, conjunction, and interjection. The adverb is virtually represented by the phrase *in a hollow tree*.

2. A boy found the nest, and, alas ! wantonly destroyed it.
3. He knew how to take care of every one but himself.
4. The best doctors are Doctor Quiet, Doctor Diet, and Doctor Merryman.

5. The postman came, and he brought letters for you and me.
6. A tower of stone and a strong chest of iron contain and secure the king's treasures.

Exercise.

Nouns, Pronouns and Verbs.

§6. Parse all the words, defining the classes of nouns. Distinguish the subject as simple or compound. Parse the verbs, designating them as declaring action or being. Distinguish the predicate as simple or compound. *Can teach, was falling, was crowned,* are parsed as single words.

1. *Politeness makes friends.*

Politeness is a noun, — ; abstract, because it denotes a quality separate from an object (§30); it is the subject, which is simple because it consists of but one word.

Makes is a verb, because it declares (§40); it declares action; it is the predicate, declaring action of *politeness*; it is a simple predicate, because it consists of but one verb.

Friends is a noun, — ; common, — ; denoting the object of the verb.

2. Troy was.
3. Kings reign.
4. Victoria reigns.
5. The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep.
6. The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea.
7. Courage and piety and love and wisdom can teach.
8. I came and saw and conquered.
9. A snow-storm was falling around us.
10. King Charles of France was crowned at Rheims.
11. The Prince of Wales took the Castle of Romorantin.
12. The populace of England rebelled against the nobility.
13. Froissart's Chronicles contain these statements.
14. His "Chronicles" is five hundred years old.
15. A handful of English remain, but they can not prevail over us ;
we shall rout them, and have them at our mercy.

Exercise.

Adjectives.

87. Parse all the words. Distinguish between an adjective as a modifier in a modified predicate, and as a predicate adjective (§53). The predicate noun and predicate pronoun will occur in this exercise (§52). Some nouns used as adjectives are readily distinguished.

1. *The trees are heavy with leaves.*

The is an adjective, qualifying *trees*, by defining its meaning.

Trees is a noun; common, —; names the subject. The modified subject is *The trees*.

Are is a verb; the incomplete predicate, —.

Heavy is an adjective, qualifying the noun *trees*; predicate adjective, completing the declaration of the verb *are*.

With is a preposition, showing the relation between the noun *leaves* and the adjective *heavy*.

With leaves is a prepositional phrase, qualifying the adjective *heavy*.

The modified predicate is *are heavy with leaves*.

2. Strong reasons make strong actions.
3. The canker worms have crawled to the topmost bough of the lofty elm.
4. An old man is twice a child.
5. Every natural fact is a symbol of some spiritual fact.
6. He wore an old, green shooting-jacket with a dog whistle at the button-hole, brown linen pantaloons, stout shoes, and a white hat.
7. The night was calm and cloudless.
8. Good words cost little and are worth much.
9. Occupation is the armor of the soul.
10. It is he; it is not I.
11. She is intelligent, attractive, and benevolent.
12. A strong, rapid river, full of rocks and stones, obstructed the pathway.

Exercise.

Adverbs.

88. Parse all the words. Verify the definition of adverb (§56) by its application in the examples. *Had seen* and *did shine* are parsed as single words.

1. *An old man is twice a child.*

An is an adjective, qualifying the noun *man*.

Old is an adjective, qualifying *man*.

Man is a noun; common, —; subject, with *an* and *old* making the modified subject.

Is is a verb; the incomplete predicate.

Twice is an adverb, modifying the predicate.

A is an adjective, —.

Child is a noun; common, —; predicate noun, completing the declaration of *is*, and explaining the subject *man*.

Is twice a child is the modified predicate.

2. Very rich food often impairs digestion.
3. He struck the golden lyre again.
4. The old man remembered the circumstances perfectly well.
5. He turned his horse about.
6. The Scots had very hard and quite sharp axes.
7. The battle was very murderous.
8. Nine summers had she scarcely seen.
9. The good man quietly discharges his duty.
10. Never did sun more beautifully shine.
11. We steadfastly gazed on the face that was dead.
12. Suddenly and unexpectedly he left the room.

Exercise.

Prepositions.

89. Parse all the words. Point out the prepositions and the words between whose meanings they show relations,

illustrating the definition (§60). Show in what cases the prepositional phrases perform the office of adjective and adverb, respectively; and convert them into adjectives and adverbs, where it is practicable.

1. *Animals with backbones are vertebrates.*

Animals is a noun, — ; subject.

With is a preposition, connecting *backbones* and *animals*, and showing the relation between the two ideas. The phrase is equivalent to the adjective “backboned.”

Animals with backbones is the modified subject.

Are is — ; incomplete predicate.

Vertebrates is a noun, — ; used as a predicate noun to complete —.

Are vertebrates is the complete predicate.

2. They advanced in silence (silently) by the side (adverb of place) of the wood.
3. The corruption of man is followed by the corruption of language.
4. Truth gives wings to strength.
5. He inquired in an apparently indifferent manner.
6. In the midst of life, we are in death.
7. A cripple in the right way will beat a racer in the wrong way.
8. I love the music of the water-wheel.
9. Look (subject not expressed) not a gift horse in the mouth.
10. To be simple is to be great.
11. Here rests his head upon the lap of Earth.
12. Virtue consists in action.
13. She played on the banks of the river.
14. It came upon us by degrees.

Exercise.

Conjunctions and Interjections.

90. Parse all the words. Illustrate the definition of conjunction (§69) by pointing out its use. Explain the compounds—subject, predicate, and compound sentence. Note

the absence of the conjunction and the substitute for it. For the parsing of the interjection see Chapter XI. and the "Model" (§83).

1. *Courage and love inspire and sustain the hero.*

Courage is a noun. — : subject.

And is a conjunction, connecting the words *courage* and *love*.

Love is a noun, — : subject. The two subjects joined by *and* form a compound subject having the force of a simple subject because both have the same predicates. The subject is unmodified.

Inspire is a verb, declaring action : predicate, —.

And is a conjunction, joining *inspire* and *sustain*.

Sustain is a verb, declaring action ; predicate. The two predicates thus joined are a compound predicate, because they have the same subject.

The is an adjective qualifying *hero*.

Hero is a noun — ; denoting the object of the two verbs.

The modified predicate is *inspire and sustain the hero*.

2. Courage, piety, love, wisdom can teach. (The nouns are connected by commas instead of by conjunctions, and together form a compound subject of the verb *can teach*.)
3. The grass-finches, the vireos, the wrens and the linnets have joined their voices to the chorus, and the bobolinks are loudest in their song.
4. The king was sound asleep, and the porter settled for the night in his arm-chair.
5. "Porter" is a noun, because it is the name of a thing.
6. "Because" is here a noun because it is used as a name.
7. Indeed ! exclaimed he in astonishment.
8. He cometh (comes) forth as a flower and is cut down.
9. He fleeth (flees) also as a shadow, and continueth (continues) not.
10. Talent is something, tact is everything.

11. It is not a sixth sense, but it is the life of all the five (senses).
12. Gentlemen may cry peace ! peace ! but there is no peace.
13. He has tricked fortune ; and his creditors—bah ! who feels for his creditors ?
14. He was oppressed, and was afflicted, yet he opened not his mouth.
15. He is brought as a lamb to the slaughter.
16. There were seen, side by side, the greatest painter and the greatest scholar of the age.

THE DERIVATION OF WORDS.

XV. HISTORY, ORIGIN, AND FORMATION OF WORDS.

91. A general description of different kinds of words, such as that which has been given, enables us to refer to one class or another by name, and thus more conveniently to treat of their origin and formation.

The English language, as it is spoken to-day, is the growth of nearly a thousand years. It took definite form under King Alfred, about A.D. 1000.

92. The language has constantly lost and gained words. *Inwit*, meaning *understanding*, is an example of a lost word ; *telephone*, of a new word.

Science, the trades, and the professions have added a great many words, so that the language embraces, altogether, more than 200,000 words. Scarcely any individual, however, commonly uses more than 3,000 words, and most people use a much smaller number.

93. At the time of the Roman conquest the language of the British Islanders was **Celtic**, forms of which still remain in Wales, Ireland, the Scottish Highlands, and the Isle of Man.

The Romans occupied South Britain for a long period—

from A. D. 43 to 409—and made the inhabitants of the towns somewhat familiar with the **Latin** tongue.

The Romans were followed by the Angles, Saxons, and their allies from the north of Germany, who conquered the Britons about A. D. 500, introducing a **German** element called **Anglo-Saxon**.

In 1066 William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy, subdued England, and brought from the continent a people who spoke **French**, and who added to the English many French expressions.

English navigators of the sixteenth century introduced a few **Spanish** words, and American words in Spanish forms, such as *potato, tobacco, cargo, alligator*.

94. Thus, derived chiefly from the German and French, our language has, from time to time, appropriated words from the **Greek, Latin, Hebrew, Spanish, and Italian**.

Words of common life had their origin chiefly among the Saxons, who tended the flocks and herds of the Normans. Such are the names *ox, cow, calf, sheep, swine, deer*.

Words of high life originated with the Norman masters and lords. Such are the names of animals when dressed and prepared for the table—*beef, mutton, pork, venison*.

In like manner, the Norman conquerors gave to the English such words as *sovereign, throne, realm, prince, palace, castle*.

95. Words of universal use and endearment, the names of the common objects of sense and domestic life, are retained from the older Saxon. Of these are *sun, moon, water, fire, father, mother, brother, sister, house, home, hearth, dog, cat*. How such words originated we do not know; but as they are not made from other words in the language, they are called **primitive words**.

Primitive words are those which are not formed from other words in the language.

Many primitive words are borrowed from other languages. For example, the Latin gives us "act" from *actus*; "benign" from *benignus*; "candid" from *candidus*; "religion" from *religio*; "science" from *scientia*; "sense" from *sensus*; "sign" from *signum*; "use" from *usus*, etc. The Greek gives us *apology*, *epilogue*, *mechanic*, *prosody*. From the French come *chief*, *charm*, *meager*, *pace*, *round*, *sovereign*, *view*; from the Hebrew, *cherub* and *seraph*; from the Italian, *bandit* and *virtuoso*.

Many words have originated from likeness of sound to that made by the thing named; as, the mew of a cat, *crash*, *hiss*, *buzz*, *splash*, *thunder*.

96. Our language has made, and is constantly making, new words from primitive ones. Thus, from the adjective *true*, by adding *th* we have the noun *truth*. One word thus formed from another is called a **derivative word**.

Derivative words are those formed from other words in the language.

97. The addition to the end of a primitive word, which makes a derivative word, is called a **suffix**.

The suffixes of *Anglo-Saxon* origin in most common use in the English language are:

ard = one who; as, *dotard*, *coward*.

dom = the place where, the state of being; as, *kingdom*, *freedom*.

ed, d = did; as, *pulled*, *loved*. It is also added to nouns to form adjectives; as, *talented*.

en = made of, to make; as, *wooden*, *harden*.

er = more; as, *better*, *purser*.

est = most; as, *smallest*, *brightest*.

ful = full of; as, *careful*, *hopeful*.

hood = the state of: as, *boyhood*, *childhood*.

ish = like; as, *childish*, *foolish*.

kin = little; as, *napkin*, *bodkin*.

less = without; as, *childless*, *fearless*.

let = little; as, *rivulet*, *eyelet*.

ling = little; as, *duckling*, *darling*.

ly = like; as, *worldly*, *fatherly*.

ness = the state of being; as, *boldness*, *happiness*.

ship = the state of; as, *friendship*, *rivalship*.

some = somewhat; as, *gladsome*, *darksome*.

ster = one who; as, *teamster*, *spinster*.

teen = ten; as, *fourteen*, *nineteen*.

ty = ten; as, *forty*, *sixty* (*teen* adds ten; *ty* multiplies by ten).

The suffixes of *Latin* origin are:

able, *ible*, *ble* = that may be; as, *blamable*, *contemptible*, *soluble*.

aceous, *acious* = of, having the quality of; as, *farinaceous*, *capacious*.

acity, *icity*, *ocity* = the state of, the practice of; as, *capacity*, *mendicity*, *reciprocity*.

age = a collection of, the state of being; as, *baggage*, *bondage*.

al = relating to; as, *mental*, *floral*.

an, *ane* = relating to, befitting; as, *human*, *humane*.

an, *ian* = one who; as, *artisan*, *historian*.

ance, *aucy* = being, the state of; as, *ignorance*, *constancy*.

ant = one who; as, *assistant*, *claimant*.

ant, *ent* = ing; as, *observant*, *pleasant*.

ary = one who, the place where, relating to; as, *adversary*, *library*, *literary*.

ate = having, being, one who; as, *animate*, *desperate*, *curate*.

The suffixes of *Greek* origin are:

ac, *acal* = relating to, like; as, *cardiac*, *demoniacal*.

ic, *ical* = made of, relating to; as, *metallic*, *historical*.

ward = toward; as, *homeward*, *eastward*.

y, *ie* = little; as, *Fanny*, *birdie*.

y = full of, consisting of; as, *dewy*, *rocky*.

ent = one who; as, *patient*, *president*.

erly, *ern* = somewhat, in the direction of; as, *southern*, *westerly*.

ery, *ry* = a collection of; as, *stationery*, *yeomanry*.

fy = to make; as, *fortify*, *purify*.

ite, *ine* = relating to, like; as, *docile*, *feminine*.

ion = the act of, state of being; as, *expulsion*, *corruption*.

ish = to make; as, *publish*, *finish*.

ist, *st* = one who; as, *artist*, *priest*.

ity, *ty* = the state of being; as, *security*, *liberty*.

ment = the act of, that which; as, *retirement*, *inducement*.

mony = state of being, the thing that; as, *parsimony*, *testimony*.

or = one who, that which; as, *director*, *motor*.

ory = the place where, that which, ing; as, *factory*, *memory*, *satisfactory*.

pte = fold; as, *triple*, *multiple*.

ise, *ize* = to make, to give; as, *civilize*, *criticise*.

ism = state or act of, an idiom; as, *feudalism*, *Gallicism*.

Exercise.

98. Point out the suffixes in the following words, show their meaning, and state from what language each is derived.

Amiable, dotage, kindness, identical, girlish, jumped, botanist, collector, generosity, atonement, streamlet, patriotism, fertilize, cherish, finer, magnify, girlhood, softest, sluggard, harden, royal, artisan, faultless, thankful, wisdom, herbage, lambkin, gosling, cowardly, clerkship, attendant, brilliant, frolicsome, homeward, bloody, matrimony, action, servile, quadruple, dormitory, northerly, eastern, forcible, corporate, baby, saponaceous, rapacity, Roman, sufferance, granary, agent.

99. The addition to the beginning of a primitive word which makes a derivative word, is called a **prefix**.

The prefixes of *Anglo-Saxon* origin in most common use in the English language are:

a = on, in, to, at; as, <i>asleep, ahead.</i>	out = beyond, more than; as, <i>outlive, outrun.</i>
be = by, to make; as, <i>because, bedim.</i>	over = above, over; as, <i>overflow, overhead.</i>
en, em = to make, to give; as, <i>en-dear, empower.</i>	un = back, not; as, <i>undo, unable.</i>
fore = before; as, <i>forenoon, foretell.</i>	under = beneath, less than; as, <i>underbid, underneath.</i>
mis = wrong; as, <i>misplace, mistake.</i>	with = from, against; as, <i>withhold, withdraw.</i>

The most common prefixes of *Latin* origin are:

a, ab, abs = from, away; as, <i>avert, absolve, absent.</i>	amb, ambi = around; as, <i>ambiguous, ambidexter.</i>
ad = to; as, <i>adhere, adjust.</i> This also takes the forms a, ac, af, ag, al, am, an, ap, ar, as, and at ; as, <i>avow, accede, affix, ag-gress, ally, annex, append, ar-range, assist, attract.</i>	ante = before; as, <i>anteroom, antecedent.</i>
	bi, bis = two, twice; as, <i>bisect, bis-tort.</i>
	circum = around, about; as, <i>circumscribe, circumspect.</i>

con = together, with; as, *connect*, *connive*. This also takes the forms, *co*, *cog*, *col*, *com*, *cor*; as, *cohere*, *cognate*, *collate*, *compress*, *corrode*.

contra, **counter** = against; as, *contradict*, *counteract*.

de = down, from; as, *decline*, *depose*.

dis, **di**, **dif** = apart, not; as, *dishonest*, *divert*, *differ*.

ex, **e**, **ef** = out of, from; as, *export*, *erase*, *efface*.

extra = beyond; as, *extraordinary*, *extravagant*.

in = in, into; as, *include*, *inhale*. This also takes the forms, *it*, *im*, *ir*; as, *illuminate*, *import*, *irruption*.

in = not; as, *incompetent*. This also takes the forms *ig*, *il*, *im*, *ir*; as, *ignoble*, *illegal*, *imperfect*, *irregular*.

inter, **intro** = between, within, among; as, *interpose*, *introduce*.

ob = in the way of, against; as,

obtrude. This also takes the forms *oc*, *of*, *op*; as, *occur*, *offend*, *oppose*.

pene, **pen** = almost; as, *peninsula*, *penumbra*.

per = through; as, *peruse*, *pervade*.

post = after; as, *postscript*, *postpone*.

pre = before; as, *predict*, *prefix*.

pro = forward, forth; as, *produce*, *proceed*.

re, **red** = back; as, *reclaim*, *redolent*.

retro = backwards; as, *retrograde*, *retrospect*.

semi = half; as, *semicircle*, *semi-barbarous*.

sub = under, up; as, *subscribe*.

This also takes the forms **suc**, **suf**, **sug**, **sup**, **sur**, **sus**; as, *succumb*, *suffuse*, *suggest*, *support*, *surrender*, *sustain*.

super, **sur** = above, over; as, *superscribe*, *survive*.

trans = across; as, *transfer*, *transmit*.

The most common prefixes of *Greek* origin are:

amphi = on both sides; as, *amphitheater*, *amphibious*.

an, **a** = without; as, *anhydrid*, *amorphous*.

ana = back, again; as, *analogy*, *anagram*.

ant, **anti** = against; as, *antarctic*, *antidote*.

ap, **apo** = from, off; as, *aphelion*, *apology*.

auto = self; as, *autocrat*, *autopsy*.

bene = well; as, *benefit*, *benediction*.

cata = down, over; as, *catacomb*, *catalogue*.

dia = through, across; as, *dialogue*, *diagonal*.

du, **duo** = two; as, *duplex*, *duodenum*.

epi = upon; as, *epigram*, *epidemic*.

eu = well; as, *eulogy*, *euphony*.

<p><i>hemi</i> = half; as, <i>hemisphere</i>, <i>hemiscarp</i>.</p> <p><i>mono</i> = one, alone; as, <i>monogram</i>, <i>monotonous</i>.</p>	<p><i>poly</i> = many; as, <i>polygon</i>, <i>polygamy</i>.</p> <p><i>pro</i> = before; as, <i>prologue</i>, <i>prophetic</i>.</p>
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Exercise.

100. Point out the prefixes in the following words, show their meaning, and state from what language each is derived.

Foresight, abstract, adjure, benefaction, misunderstand, overrule, retrogression, submit, semitone, translate, superscribe, anatomy, survive, underrate, withstand, undo, outshine, catalogue, antipathy, abyss, anarchy, eulogize, hemisphere, apostle, astern, becalm, embolden, autograph, monotone, enable, bisection, diameter, anteroom, ambition, consult, duplicate, polyglot, comment, circumscribe, epilogue, program, amphitheater, afford, counteract, contravene, diffuse, displease, expose, intervene, redress, extraordinary, inhale, imprison, propel, obstruct, persist, peninsular, postscript, preoccupy.

101. The principal parts of words from some other language that have been introduced into the English language are called **stems**.

The following stems, from which we have English derivatives, are of *Anglo-Saxon* origin:

<p><i>bear</i> = bear; as, <i>forbear</i>, <i>unbearable</i>.</p> <p><i>bid</i> = ask; as, <i>forbid</i>, <i>bidden</i>.</p> <p><i>bind</i> = bind; as, <i>binding</i>, <i>binder</i>.</p> <p><i>bit</i> = bite; as, <i>bitter</i>, <i>biting</i>.</p> <p><i>blod</i> = blood; as, <i>bloody</i>, <i>blood-thirsty</i>.</p> <p><i>bod</i> = foretell; as, <i>boding</i>, <i>forbode</i>.</p> <p><i>dead</i> = dead; as, <i>deadly</i>, <i>deaden</i>.</p> <p><i>for</i> = before; as, <i>fore</i>, <i>foremost</i>.</p> <p><i>gast</i> = breath; as, <i>gast</i>, <i>ghastly</i>.</p> <p><i>gif</i> = give; as, <i>gift</i>, <i>forgive</i>.</p> <p><i>god</i> = God, good; as, <i>godchild</i>, <i>goodness</i>.</p>	<p><i>hand</i> = hand; as, <i>handle</i>, <i>handful</i>.</p> <p><i>land</i> = land; as, <i>landmark</i>, <i>landscape</i>.</p> <p><i>mid</i> = equally distant; as, <i>middle</i>, <i>amid</i>.</p> <p><i>pin</i> = pain; as, <i>pinning</i>, <i>repine</i>.</p> <p><i>thuner</i> = thunder; as, <i>thunderbolt</i>, <i>thundershower</i>.</p> <p><i>wit</i> = know; as, <i>wittingly</i>, <i>witness</i>.</p> <p><i>wring</i> = wring; as, <i>wringer</i>, <i>wrinkle</i>.</p> <p><i>writh</i> = twist; as, <i>writh</i>, <i>wrath</i>.</p>
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The following stems and derivatives are of *Latin* origin:

- ag, act** = act, drive, urge; as, *agent, action*.
- alt** = high; as, *alto, exalt*.
- anim** = mind; as, *magnanimous, unanimous*.
- ann** = year; as, *annual, anniversary*.
- aper, apert** = open; as, *aperture, aperient*.
- apt** = fit, join; as, *aptitude, adapt*.
- art** = skill; as, *artisan, artist*.
- aud** = hear; as, *audience, inaudible*.
- aur** = gold; as, *aureate, auriferous*.
- bas** = low; as, *base, abase*.
- bat** = beat; as, *batter, combat*.
- brev** = short; as, *brevity, abbreviate*.
- cad, cas** = fall; as, *cadence, casual*.
- cant** = sing; as, *cant, canticle*.
- cap, capt** = take, hold; as, *capable, capture*.
- capit** = head; as, *capital, decapitate*.
- carn** = flesh; as, *carnal, carnivorous*.
- ced, cess** = go, yield; as, *recede, cession*.
- celer** = swift; as, *accelerate, celerity*.
- cent** = hundred; as, *century, centennial*.
- cing, cinct** = bind; as, *surcingle, precinct*.
- clin** = lean, bend; as, *incline, recline*.
- commod** = suitable; as, *commodious, incommode*.
- commun** = common; as, *community, communion*.
- cor, cord** = heart; as, *cordial, discord*.
- coron** = crown; as, *coronet, coronation*.
- corpus, corpor** = body; as, *corpse, corporal*.
- cred** = believe; as, *credit, incredible*.
- cur** = care; as, *curate, accurate*.
- curr, curs** = run; as, *current, cursory*.
- dat** = give; as, *data, date*.
- dent** = tooth; as, *dentist, dentate*.
- di** = day; as, *diurnal, dial*.
- dict** = speak, say; as, *diction, edict*.
- dign** = worthy; as, *dignity, dignified*.
- domin** = lord, master; as, *predominate, dominion*.
- dorm** = sleep; as, *dormant, dormitory*.
- duc, duct** = lead; as, *educate, conduct*.
- equ** = equal; as, *equal, equation*.
- fa** = speak; as, *fable, affable*.
- fac** = face, form; as, *facial, efface*.
- fac, fact** = make, do; as, *facile, factory*.
- felic** = happy; as, *felicitous, felicity*.
- ferr** = carry, bear; as, *transfer, fertile*.

- fess* = acknowledge; as, *confess*, *profess*.
- fid* = trust, faith; as, *fidelity*, *infidel*.
- fin* = the end; as, *finish*, *final*.
- form* = shape; as, *deform*, *conform*.
- fort* = strong; as, *fort*, *fortitude*.
- frang*, *fract* = break; as, *fragment*, *fracture*.
- fund*, *fus* = pour, melt; as, *confound*, *fusion*.
- gen*, *gener* = kind, race; as, *genus*, *generation*.
- gest* = carry, bring; as, *suggest*, *digest*.
- grad*, *gress* = step, go; as, *gradual*, *aggressive*.
- gran* = grain; as, *granule*, *granary*.
- grat* = pleasing; as, *gratitude*, *grateful*.
- gross* = fat, thick; as, *gross*, *engross*.
- hospit* = host, guest; as, *hospitable*, *hospital*.
- integr* = whole; as, *integer*, *integrity*.
- ject* = cast; as, *eject*, *conjecture*.
- judic* = judge; as, *judicial*, *judicious*.
- junct* = join; as, *junction*, *conjunctive*.
- jur* = swear; as, *jury*, *abjure*.
- jur* = law, right; as, *jurisdiction*, *injure*.
- lat* = bring, carry, lift; as, *collation*, *elate*.
- leg* = send, bring; as, *legacy*, *allegation*.
- leg*, *lect* = gather, choose; as, *legion*, *elect*.
- leg*, *lect* = read; as, *legible*, *lecture*.
- liber* = free; as, *liberty*, *liberal*.
- lin* = flax; as, *linen*, *linseed*.
- lingu* = tongue; as, *lingual*, *linguist*.
- liter* = letter; as, *illiterate*, *literature*.
- loc* = place; as, *locate*, *local*.
- loq*, *locut* = speak; as, *colloquy*, *elocution*.
- lud*, *lus* = sport, play; as, *ludicrous*, *illusive*.
- magu* = great; as, *magnitude*, *magnanimous*.
- major* = greater; as, *major*, *majority*.
- man*, *mans* = stay, dwell; as, *manor*, *mansion*.
- man* = hand; as, *manufacture*, *manacle*.
- mar* = sea; as, *maritime*, *mariner*.
- mater*, *matr* = mother; as, *maternal*, *matricide*.
- medi* = middle; as, *medicæval*, *intermediate*.
- medic* = physician; as, *medical*, *medicine*.
- mens* = measure; as, *immense*, *commensurate*.
- ment* = mind; as, *mental*, *demented*.
- merc* = trade; as, *merchant*, *commerce*.
- merg* = dip, sink; as, *submerge*, *emerge*.
- migr* = wander; as, *migration*, *emigrant*.

- mir* = wonder, look ; as, *admirable*, *miracle*.
- mitt*, *miss* = send ; as, *remit*, *missive*.
- mon*, *monit* = warn, advise, remind ; as, *admonition*, *monster*.
- mort* = death ; as, *mortal*, *immortal*.
- mor*, *mot* = move ; as, *movable*, *motion*.
- mult* = many ; as, *multiform*, *multiply*.
- mun*, *munit* = fortify ; as, *ammunition*, *immunity*.
- nat* = born ; as, *nativity*, *natal*.
- nav* = ship ; as, *naval*, *navigate*.
- not* = known ; as, *notable*, *noted*.
- numer* = number ; as, *numerical*, *numeral*.
- nunci*, *nounce* = tell ; as, *pronunciation*, *denounce*.
- ocul* = eye ; as, *oculist*, *ocular*.
- pan* = bread ; as, *pantry*, *pannier*.
- par* = equal ; as, *par*, *disparity*.
- par* = get ready ; as, *prepare*, *parade*.
- parl* = speak ; as, *parlance*, *parley*.
- pars*, *part* = part ; as, *parse*, *partial*.
- pass* = step ; as, *compass*, *pass*.
- past* = feed ; as, *repast*, *pasturage*.
- pat*, *pass* = suffer ; as, *patient*, *passive*.
- pater*, *patr* = father ; as, *paternal*, *patrimony*.
- ped* = foot ; as, *pedal*, *pedestal*.
- pell*, *puls* = drive ; as, *expel*, *repulse*.
- pen* = pain, punishment ; as, *penalty*, *penance*.
- pend*, *pens* = hang, weigh ; as, *pendent*, *compensate*.
- pet*, *petit* = seek ; as, *competent*, *petition*.
- pict* = paint ; as, *depict*, *picture*.
- plac* = please ; as, *placid*, *implacable*.
- ple*, *plet* = fill ; as, *complement*, *replete*.
- plen* = full ; as, *plenitude*, *replenish*.
- plie* = fold, bend ; as, *complicate*, *implicate*.
- plum* = feather ; as, *plume*, *plumage*.
- plumb* = lead ; as, *plumb*, *plumber*.
- pon* = place, put ; as, *deponent*, *component*.
- port* = carry, bring ; as, *import*, *report*.
- port* = gate ; as, *portal*, *port*.
- pos* = place, put ; as, *impose*, *repose*.
- pot* = drink ; as, *potion*, *potation*.
- potent* = powerful ; as, *omnipotent*, *potential*.
- prehend*, *prehens* = take, grasp ; as, *comprehend*, *apprehension*.
- prim* = first ; as, *primer*, *primeval*.
- punct* = prick, point ; as, *compunction*, *punctual*.
- quadr* = square, fourfold ; as, *quadrilateral*, *quadrangle*.

- quant* = how much ; as, *quantity*,
quantitative.
quer, quisit = seek, ask ; as,
query, requisite.
quiet = still ; as, *quiet*, *quietude*.
radi = ray ; as, *radiance*, *radiate*.
rap, rapt = seize ; as, *rapacious*,
enrapture.
rat = think, calculate ; as, *ratio*,
rational.
rect = right, straight ; as, *recti-*
tude, *correct*.
reg = rule, govern ; as, *regent*,
regiment.
rid, ris = laugh ; as, *ridicule*, *de-*
rision.
riv = stream ; as, *river*, *rivulet*.
rog, rogat = ask ; as, *interroga-*
tive, *abrogate*.
rupt = break ; as, *abrupt*, *erup-*
tion.
sacr = holy ; as, *sacred*, *sacra-*
ment.
sal = salt ; as, *salt*, *saline*.
sal = leap, spring ; as, *salient*, *a-*
sail.
sanct = holy ; as, *sanctity*, *sanc-*
titude.
sat, satis = enough ; as, *sate*, *sat-*
isfactory.
sci = know ; as, *conscious*, *pre-*
scient.
scrib, script = write ; as, *scribe*,
scripture.
sec, sect = cut ; as, *secant*, *section*.
sen = old ; as, *senile*, *senior*.
sent, sens = feel ; as, *sentient*, *sen-*
sory.
seq, secut = follow ; as, *consequent*,
prosecute.
serv = keep ; as, *preserve*, *reserve*.
sist = place, stand ; as, *consist*,
insist.
sol = alone ; as, *solo*, *solitary*.
sol = sun ; as, *solar*, *parasol*.
son = sound ; as, *sonorous*, *reso-*
nant.
sort = lot, kind ; as, *assortment*,
consort.
spec, spect = look, appear ; as,
specimen, *spectacle*.
speci = kind ; as, *species*, *especial*.
spir = breathe ; as, *inspire*, *spirit*.
stant = standing ; as, *constant*,
extant.
stell = star ; as, *stellar*, *constella-*
tion.
string, strict = bind ; as, *string*,
stricture.
stru, struct = build ; as, *construe*,
structure.
su = follow ; as, *pursue*, *sue*.
suad, suas = persuade ; as, *dis-*
suade, *suasion*.
sum, sumpt = take ; as, *resume*,
assumption.
surg, surrect = rise ; as, *surge*,
insurrection.
tang, tact = touch ; as, *tangible*,
contact.
taill = cut ; as, *tailor*, *retail*.
teg, tect = cover ; as, *integument*,
detect.
tempor = time ; as, *temporary*,
contemporary.
tend, tent = stretch, reach ; as,
extend, *extent*.
test = witness ; as, *testify*, *attest*.
tort = twist, turn ; as, *contort*,
tortuous.

tract = draw ; as, *tractable, extract*.

trit = rub ; as, *attrition, trite*.

trud, trus = thrust : as, *intrude, abstruse*.

un = one ; as, *unit, universal*.

und = wave, flow ; as, *undulate, inundate*.

ut, util = use, useful ; as, *utensil, utility*.

rad, ras = go ; as, *evade, invasion*.

ral = be strong : as *valor, valiant*.

ven, vent = come : as, *convene, event*.

vert, vers = turn ; as, *avert, averse*.

vi, via = way ; as, *obvious, viaduct*.

vic = change, turn : as, *vicissitude, vicar*.

vid, vis = see ; as, *provident, vision*.

viv = live ; as, *vivacious, convivial*.

voc = call ; as, *advocate, evoke*.

rot, rolu, volut = roll ; as, *revolve, volute, evolution*.

rot = vow : as, *votive, devote*.

The following stems and derivatives are of *Greek* origin :

arch = rule, govern ; as, *monarch, anarchy*.

chron = time ; as, *chronicle, anachronism*.

crit = judge ; as, *critic, hypocrite*.

cycl = circle ; as, *cycle, bicycle*.

ge = earth ; as, *geography, geology*.

gon = corner, angle ; as, *polygon, pentagon*.

graph = write ; as, *autograph, graphic*.

hor = hour ; as, *horoscope, horology*.

log = word, speech, reason ; as, *dialogue, logic*.

meter, metr = measure ; as, *metrical, thermometer*.

od = song ; as, *melody, psalmody*.

petr = stone, rock ; as, *petrify, saltpeter*.

phil = fond, loving ; as, *philanthropy, philosophy*.

phon = sound ; as, *phonetic, telephone*.

physi = nature ; as, *physical, physiology*.

pneum = breath ; as, *pneumatics, pneumonia*.

pol = city ; as, *metropolis, police*.

scop = watch, see ; as, *scope, telescope*.

tom = cut ; as, *anatomy, epitome*.

typ = mark, model ; as, *typical, stereotype*.

Exercise.

102. Point out the stems in the preceding words ; give other English words derived from the same stems.

103. Compound words are formed by bringing together two primitive words; as,

gentleman, *grandfather,*
headache, *washtub.*

104. One class of words may be derived from another by appropriation, or use, without change of form. Nouns are used as verbs, as, *foot a bill*; adjectives as verbs, as, *better one's life*; nouns as adjectives, as, *brick house*; adjectives as nouns, as, *the good*.

105. Words of the same class are suited to different uses by changes of form called **inflection**. Thus the noun *man* denotes one; by a change of the vowel, *men* denotes two or more objects of the same class. An *s* preceded by an apostrophe (') is added to denote possession;

man's life, *men's life.*

The pronouns *I* and *we* are changed to *my* and *our* to denote possession, and to *me* and *us* when they are used as objects of verbs or prepositions.

Adjectives are changed by inflection to denote the degree of the quality which they express; as,

sweet, *sweeter,* *sweetest*;
good, *better,* *best.*

SYNOPSIS.—State: the age of the English language, its three periods and names; by what process it has come to be what it is; about how many words it contains, and how many are commonly used; the sources of different elements, with events and words to illustrate. Explain: origin of words of common and of high life; of primitive words, and define; of borrowed words; of words originating in sounds; of derivative words, and define. Explain the formation of words by the addition of suffixes; by prefixes; from stems; of compound words; of inflected words.

PROPERTIES OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

XVI. PROPERTIES AND MODIFICATIONS.

106. Thus far the parts of speech have been described by the simple characteristics that distinguish them, one from another, in a sentence. We are now to consider those internal changes which certain of the parts of speech undergo in use.

The primary distinction of different kinds of words must be firmly impressed.

1. A **noun** is always a name of something. We have seen it as the name of the subject about which the verb declares; the name of the object or defining idea following a verb or a preposition.
2. The primary use of a **pronoun** is that of a substitute for a noun, to avoid an awkward repetition of a noun. It has other uses yet to be described.
3. The **verb** is always to be recognized as the one word which declares or asserts something.

These three, the **noun**, the **pronoun**, and the **verb**, are the main pillars or supports of a sentence. A sentence can be made with either a noun or a pronoun and a verb. The other parts of speech **help** in the expression of thought.

4. The **adjective** adds an idea to the noun, or expresses a quality of the object which, as a mere name, the noun does not itself express. The adjective is the qualifier of nouns and, by the help of a verb, of pronouns.
5. The **adverb** is a qualifier, in most cases of a verb, sometimes of an adjective or of an adverb. It indicates the manner, time, place, or degree of the action or being ex-

pressed by a verb. It also limits the quality expressed by an adjective or the manner or degree indicated by an adverb.

6. The **preposition** is a connecting word. It always connects so as to show a relation between the ideas connected.
7. The **conjunction** is also a connecting word, but it nearly always joins without reference to relation of ideas.
8. The **interjection** is known by its peculiar nature as an exclamatory word, having no connection with the expression of the thought in the sentence.

107. The easiest method of distinguishing the different parts of speech is to view them as parts in the expression of thought in the sentence.

First, settle the fact that the collection of words is a sentence.

Secondly, answer the question, Which word names the idea spoken of? That will give the leading noun or simple subject.

Thirdly, answer the question, Which is the asserting word that declares something of the object expressed by the subject? That will give the verb or simple predicate.

Lastly, inquire of each word how it is related to either the subject or the predicate?

108. There are still to be described some further characteristics of the parts of speech affecting their use in the sentence, and belonging to them as nouns, pronouns, verbs, etc.

For example, a noun, besides being a name of **one** thing, is in some cases so changed or modified as to express **more than one**. Some pronouns have modifications to express difference of sex, as, *he, she*; or to express subject and object, as, *He teaches, I teach him*.

109. Characteristics belonging to parts of speech are called their **properties**, and any changes of form they may have to express these properties are called **modifications**.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain : the primary distinction of the different parts of speech—the noun, pronoun, verb—and how these three are related to the sentence; of the adjective, the adverb, the preposition and the conjunction, the interjection. Explain: the easiest method of distinguishing the different parts of speech ; the further characteristics of the parts, and what they are called; the difference between *property* and *modification*.

XVII. NOUNS—GENDER AND NUMBER.

110. The definition of a noun as “ *the name of anything* ” led to a division of nouns into classes, according to the different kinds of things, or ideas, of which they are the names. We have **common nouns**, **proper nouns**, and **collective nouns**.

A subdivision of common nouns was found in names of qualities, considered as separate from objects. Such were called **abstract nouns**.

A further subdivision of nouns is sometimes made according to their form, grouping them into **Primitive nouns**, that cannot be separated into parts, as,

man, moon, love, home ;

Derivative nouns, formed by adding prefixes or suffixes, as,

mistake, manliness, loveliness ;

Compound nouns, made by joining two or more words, as,

inkstand, spoonful, treadmill.

Any word or sign may be used as a noun ; as,

And is a conjunction.

+ is a sign of addition.

And and *+* are here used as nouns, because they are used as names.

Adjectives, phrases, and clauses may be used as nouns ;
as,

The good are blessed.

Beyond the river is too far.

To err is human.

That he should go is strange.

The first example contains an adjective, the second a prepositional phrase, the third an infinitive, and the fourth a clause with a subject and a predicate of its own—each used as a noun, and each the subject of a sentence.

111. There is a class of nouns which express a distinction of things according to their sex. Such nouns are *gender-nouns*.

<i>man,</i>	<i>woman,</i>
<i>boy,</i>	<i>girl,</i>
<i>son,</i>	<i>daughter,</i>
<i>uncle.</i>	<i>aunt.</i>

The words in the first column, denoting persons of the male sex, and those in the second, representing persons of the female sex, are all gender-nouns. The former are said to be of the **masculine gender**, the latter of the **feminine gender**.

Nouns which signify nothing with regard to sex, and have no gender, are said to be of the **neuter gender** ; as,

house, tree, stone.

Nouns which may be used to designate things of either sex are said to be of the **common gender** ; as,

parent, child.

Gender is the distinction of nouns with regard to sex.

112. *Gender-nouns are divided into two classes, viz. : masculine nouns, denoting males ; and feminine nouns, denoting females.*

113. *Nouns without any signification of gender are divided into two classes, viz. : neuter nouns, denoting things neither male nor female ; and nouns of the common gender, denoting things either male or female.*

Gender-nouns are distinguished :

1. By different words for the two sexes, as,

father, mother ; gentleman, lady ;

2. By adding a suffix to the masculine noun to form the feminine, as,

*count, countess ; hero, heroine ;
baron, baroness ; duke, duchess ;*

3. By a noun compounded with a noun that denotes gender, as,

*man-servant, maid-servant ;
landlord, landlady.*

Some nouns of the neuter gender are, by custom, represented by pronouns of the masculine or feminine gender. The *sun*, *time*, and *death*, regarded as persons, are designated by the pronoun *he* ; the *moon*, *virtue*, and a *ship* are referred to by the pronoun *she*. A very young child or an animal has the neuter pronoun *it*.

114. Most nouns of all classes undergo inflection (§105) to denote more than one individual. This modification is called **number**. The noun in its unchanged form denotes one, and is in the **singular number** ; changed to denote more than one, it is in the **plural number**, as,

sing.	plur.	sing.	plur.
<i>man,</i>	<i>men ;</i>	<i>boy,</i>	<i>boys.</i>

Number is the modification of the noun by which it denotes one or more than one.

The singular number denotes one ; the plural number denotes more than one.

The plural number is regularly formed by adding s or es to the singular ; as,

boy, boys ; box, boxes.

115. Nouns ending in a letter which will not unite with *s*, and those ending in *o* after a consonant, add *es* for the plural ; as,

fox, foxes ; potato, potatoes.

116. Some nouns are irregular in the formation of their plurals. Those ending in *f* or *fe* generally form their plural by changing *f* or *fe* into *v* and adding *es* ; as,

*calf, calves ; loaf, loaves ;
half, halves ; self, selves.*

Muff, puff, brief, hoof, and a few others, add only s to form the plural ; as,

muffs, hoofs.

117. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, except proper names, change *y* into *i* and add *es* ; as,

sky, skies ; lady, ladies.

Die, pea, penny, form their plural as dies or dice ; peas or pease ; pennies or pence.

118. Some irregular plurals of nouns are formed by a change of the singular word itself, and not by a change of its ending ; as,

*man, men ; woman, women ;
goose, geese ; mouse, mice ;
foot, feet ; tooth, teeth ;*

brother, brothers or brethren.

119. Some nouns have the same form for both singular and plural. Of such are,

sheep, deer, swine, fish.

120. Some are rarely used except in the singular, as, proper names; nouns denoting material; and abstract nouns; as,

*John, Emerson, Nebraska ;
gold, lead, flesh ;
peace, truthfulness, health.*

121. Some are used only in the plural; as,

tongs, scissors, thanks.

122. Compound nouns form their plurals by adding the plural sign *s* to the main word of the compound; as,

man-servants, blackbirds, brothers-in-law.

Some compounds are regarded as simple words, and form their plurals accordingly; as,

spoonfuls, mouthfuls.

123. Letters, signs, figures, and words referred to merely as words, form their plurals by adding an apostrophe and an *s*; as,

Be careful of the a's, the i's, the 5's, the me's, and the and's.

124. In speaking of several persons bearing the same proper name, either the title used, or the name, may be in the plural, but not both; as,

*the Messrs. Clark, the Misses Brown,
or the Miss Browns.*

125. Nouns introduced from foreign languages usually

form their plurals according to the usages of those languages ; as,

datum, *data* ; *stratum*, *strata* ;
cherub, *cherubim* ; *memorandum*, *memoranda*.

SYNOPSIS.—State and explain : the kinds of nouns described under classification ; a further subdivision ; words and characters used as nouns ; other expressions so used ; gender-nouns—the two kinds ; nouns without gender—two kinds. Define *gender*—two kinds of gender-nouns ; nouns without gender—two kinds. Explain : how gender-nouns are distinguished—three ways ; some neuter nouns represented by gender-pronouns ; one object of inflection in most nouns ; the two numbers. Define *number* and the two numbers. Explain : the regular formation of the plural ; of *potato* ; three irregular plural forms ; nouns of the same form for both numbers ; those used only in the singular ; only in the plural ; plural of compounds ; of letters, signs, etc. ; of proper names ; of nouns from foreign languages.

Exercise.

126. Point out and explain the parts of speech, phrases, and clauses that are used as nouns, either for the subject or to define the predicate. Parse the nouns and pronouns that express gender, and give the corresponding gender. Give the singular or plural of nouns used in either number.

1. "Do not count your chickens before they are hatched" is a sensible proverb.
2. To visit the fatherless and widows in their affliction is a feature of pure religion.
3. That any person should act against his own interest seems strange.
4. *And* is used to connect clauses in compound sentences.
5. +, in arithmetic, denotes addition.
6. In writing we should be careful to dot our i's and cross our t's.
7. *Ox*, *foot*, *penny*, *goose*, *crisis*, *calf*, *focus* and *stimulus* have irregular plural forms.

8. *Heroes, beaux, seraphim, media, halves, thieves* and *wharves* are plural forms, and are used in this sentence as subjects.
9. The morning sun begins his glorious way.
10. Virtue is her own reward.
11. Time carries his sickle and reaps his harvest.
12. I held a colloquy with my brothers-in-law as to whether we should say *spoons-ful, mouths-ful, or spoonfuls, mouthfuls.*

Exercise.

127. Form sentences containing words that are not nouns, and phrases and clauses used as nouns; and explain their relation to the sentence. Also form sentences containing nouns referred to as gender-nouns which do not signify gender.

SUBJECTS:

1. Your opinion on any subject, used as a noun-clause, for the subject of a sentence.
2. Occupations or duties, expressed in verbal phrases, and used as nouns.

EXAMPLES:

1. That all work should be broken by intervals of rest, is a reasonable proposition.
2. To be industrious and frugal, is one condition of thrift.

XVIII. PRONOUNS—GENDER AND NUMBER.

128. The pronoun, being used for a noun, is not itself a name, but refers to something expressed or suggested, which is represented by a name, or to words used as a name or noun.

129. The pronouns *I, you, he, she, it,* differ from the pronouns *who, which, this, that,* in meaning and in use, and hence a classification of pronouns is made.

1. *I* used in a sentence takes the place of the name of the person who utters the sentence; as, *I am here*, instead of, *George* or *Mr. Clark is here*, or any other name that may belong to the person speaking.

2. *You* is used instead of the name of the person addressed; as, *I want you*, instead of, *I want George*.

3. *He*, *she*, and *it* stand for the name of any person or thing referred to in the sentence, besides the one speaking or the one spoken to.

130. Pronouns of this sort referring to persons, in different relations to the assertion, are called **personal pronouns**.

A **personal pronoun** is one which shows what relation the person or thing which it represents bears to the assertion—whether he makes the assertion, it is made to him, or is made of him.

The personal pronouns are *I*, *you*, *he*, *she*, *it*; and the compounds, *myself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*.

The personal pronoun of **the third person** is the only kind of pronoun that expresses sex.

He is masculine, referring to a noun of the masculine gender. *She* is the corresponding feminine pronoun, and *it* is the neuter pronoun.

131. Pronouns are regarded as taking the **gender** and **number** of their nouns.

The pronoun of the first person has a change of form to denote the plural; as,

I, *we*.

The plural *we* stands for the person speaking, including his companions, his countrymen, his hearers, readers or mankind. Editors of newspapers use the plural *we* for the name of the writer.

The pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, have a common plural *they*.

The pronoun of the second person formerly had for its singular *thou*, and for its plural *ye*. The plural form *you*,

only, is commonly used for the singular, and whether referring to one or more than one takes a verb in the plural; as,

you were, not *you was.*

While *it* is usually employed as the personal pronoun of the third person in the singular number, it is sometimes used to help the verb express its action or being. It is then called an **impersonal subject**; as,

It rains. *It snows.*
It is time to go.

The real subject is often placed after the verb; as,

It is a difficult problem.

It is then the **formal subject**.

132. *This* and *that* are classed as **adjectives**—

this man, *that boy.*

They are also used alone as pronouns, and because they point out particular things are called **demonstrative pronouns**. Their plurals are *these, those*.

133. Another class of pronouns, used in asking questions, is called **interrogative pronouns**. *Who, which, what,* compose this class.

Who, which and what, when used in asking questions, are called interrogative pronouns; as, *Who is there? Which is the man? What do you want?*

These pronouns have the same form for both singular and plural; as,

Who is he? Who are they?

The nouns for which interrogative pronouns stand are designated in the answers to the questions asked; as,

Who is there? Ans. A man is there.

Who refers to persons and personified objects. *Which* and *what* are used for both animate and inanimate objects.

Which and *what* are also adjectives ; as,

I saw which horse won ; I can tell what color it is.

134. The demonstrative pronoun *that*, and the interrogative pronouns *who*, *which*, *what*, are employed to connect a clause to a principal sentence in such a way that the clause beginning with a pronoun limits or qualifies some word or part of the main sentence ; as,

The man who died left a family.

Here the pronoun *who* refers or relates to the noun *man*, and introduces or connects a clause, of which *who* is the subject and *died* is the predicate, qualifying the noun *man*.

Because it is so related, *who* is called a **relative pronoun**. The same is true of *which*, *what* and *that*, and when so used they are called relative pronouns.

A relative pronoun is one which relates to the noun it represents in such a way as to connect sentences or clauses.

135. *The word for which a relative pronoun stands is called its antecedent.*

The relative pronouns include the compounds *whoever*, *whichever*, *whatever*.

That may be used instead of *who* or *which* ; as,

The man who died.

The ox which was killed.

These may as well be,

The man that died.

The ox that was killed.

What may be used without an antecedent, representing in itself both the antecedent and the relative ; as,

They know not what (that which) they do.

The man who died left a family.

In this sentence the main clause is,

The man left a family.

The connected clause is,

man died.

This is joined to the main clause by substituting *who* or *that* for *man* ; as,

The man left a family, who died.

As this arrangement leaves the meaning of the sentence doubtful, the relative clause, *who died*, is placed next to its antecedent, *man*, or the word to which it relates ; as,

The man who died left a family.

136. This kind of sentence is called a **complex sentence**, the main clause being the **independent clause**, and the relative clause being the **dependent clause**.

137. The clauses of a compound sentence are loosely connected by conjunctions, and are of the same rank. The clauses of a complex sentence are of unequal rank, one or more being dependent, and are closely “woven together,” which is the meaning of **complex**.

138. *That* is used to avoid a repetition of *who* ; as,
who that knows.

It is also used after two antecedents, one of which represents persons, and the other a thing ; as,

I have described the men and customs that I saw.

139. The conjunction *as* is sometimes used in place of the relative and its antecedent ; as,

as many persons as (you that) have come.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the relation of a pronoun to a noun; the likeness and difference of *I, you, he, she, it*, and their uses; personal pronouns, and define them; which of them expresses sex; their relation to gender and number, and changes to express the same.

Explain: the use of *we; you; it*; and the impersonal subject; *this, that*, and their class as pronouns. Name and explain: the interrogative pronouns and their antecedents; the pronouns used to connect clauses. Define *relative pronoun; antecedent*. Explain: the use of *that, what*; the relative clause; the complex sentence. Construct a complex sentence from two clauses. Explain: the difference between compound and complex sentences; the use of *that* for *who*; the use of *as*.

Exercise.

140. Point out the personal pronouns and their nouns, and parse them, giving the class to which they belong, their gender and number. Point out and parse the relatives and their antecedents. Divide the complex sentences into clauses, and show how they are connected. The relative clause is changed into a separate clause by substituting the antecedent for the relative.

1. *I sing of heroes and of kings.*

I is a personal pronoun ; first person, because it represents the name of the person speaking ; gender unknown ; singular number ; subject of the sentence.

2. *We call attention to a communication in another column.*

We is a personal pronoun, — ; used for the name of the editor or proprietors of the paper ; called the *editorial we* ;

masculine, plural, because its noun is supposed to be such ; subject.

3. *This is the man who advocated those measures.*

This is a pronoun; demonstrative, points out a particular person; stands for the name of the person pointed out; masculine, singular, because referring to one person who is of the male sex; subject. *Who* is a relative pronoun; antecedent. *man*; masculine, singular, because *man* is so; subject, and connects the main clause, *This is the man*, and the dependent clause, *man advocated those measures*, thus forming a complex sentence. *Those* is here an adjective qualifying *measures*.

4. You can't catch old birds with chaff.
5. Who is this that comes from Bozrah ?
6. Who can tell me ?
7. A grand time is expected; we shall give an account of it in our next issue.
8. What can I say ?
9. Which of them all shall I choose ?
10. Those who sow the wind shall reap the whirlwind.
11. All men may do what man has done.
12. Heaven never helps the men that will not act.
13. All that's bright must fade.
14. Never leave that till to-morrow which you can do to-day.
15. I am not now that which I have been.

XIX. NOUNS AND PRONOUNS—PERSON AND CASE.

141. A class of pronouns, as has been seen, have distinctions of **person**. *I, you, he*, are distinct forms to denote the *first, second* and *third* persons, respectively.

142. Nouns have no distinction of form to denote person, but a noun is sometimes used in such a way as to indicate person.

I, Paul, am an apostle.

In this sentence *I* is of the first person, standing for the person speaking, and *Paul*, the name of the person speaking, is regarded as in the first person.

Saul, why persecutest thou me?

Here *Saul* is addressed, or spoken to, and is in the same person with *thou* (the old form of *you*); that is, the second person.

They took Paul and drew him out of the temple.

Here *Paul* is neither speaking nor spoken to, but is spoken of, and is therefore in the third person. The pronoun substituted for *Paul* would not be *me* nor *you*, but *him*, a form denoting the third person.

143. *Person is that property or modification of nouns and pronouns which denotes the one speaking, spoken to, or spoken of.*

144. The pronoun has another modification to show its different relations to other parts of the sentence, and to the thought which the sentence expresses. This modification expresses the property called **case**.

1. *I rode the horse.*

Here *I* is the pronoun of the first person, and is subject of the verb *rode*.

2. *My horse was ridden.*

Here the pronoun of the first person changes its form to denote the possessor.

3. *The horse carried me.*

Here the first personal pronoun denotes the object of the

action expressed by the verb, defining its declaration. It is in a different relation, and assumes a different form to denote the object of the action.

The noun is used in the same circumstances, but has not the same change of form to indicate all the cases. Substitute for the pronoun, in the examples given, the name of the person:

1. *George rode the horse.*

This makes *George* the subject.

2. *George's horse was ridden.*

This makes *George*, by the addition of 's, denote the possessor.

3. *The horse carried George.*

This makes *George* denote the object of the action.

The noun is used in the three cases precisely like the pronoun, but changes its form to denote but *one* case, that of possession.

145. *Case is that property or modification of nouns and pronouns which denotes their relation to other words in the sentence.*

146. From the illustrations given, the names of the cases will be seen to be appropriate.

The nominative case is the case of the subject or of the predicate noun ; the possessive case denotes the possessor ; the objective case denotes the object of a verb or of a preposition.

The preposition seems to imply action, like a verb, and is followed by the objective case, as if to receive action. We say *for me, with me* ; not *for I or with I*.

147. Whether the noun is in the nominative or in the

objective case can only be determined by observing its relation to other words in the sentence. Is it subject, predicate noun, or object of a verb or preposition? The true answer will determine its case. The possessive case is indicated by form.

The possessive case of nouns in the singular is regularly formed by adding to the nominative case an apostrophe and an s; plurals not ending in s form the possessive case in the same way; as, man, man's, men's.

Plurals ending in *s* add only the apostrophe to indicate the possessive case; as, *judges' opinion, ladies' room.*

Compound nouns take the possessive sign at the end of the whole word; as, *brother-in-law's store.*

148. The noun is sometimes included in a sentence without any of the four relations that have been described. It is then said to be in the **nominative independent case**. This case occurs in address or exclamation; as,

James, come to me.

The boy! O where was he?

149. The noun and the pronoun, by the modifications of case, become modifiers in the sentence.

1. The nominative case added to the subject or to the predicate noun qualifies or explains its meaning; as,

Paul, the apostle.

2. The nominative case after some verbs modifies the predicate by completing its declaration, and qualifies the subject through the help of the verb; as,

Victoria is queen.

3. The possessive case qualifies the noun denoting the

thing possessed, and enables the noun to perform the office of an adjective ; as,

man's cruelty = human cruelty.

4. The possessive case may be expressed by the objective with a preposition : as,

man's cruelty = the cruelty of man.

5. The objective case modifies the predicate by defining the declaration, or confining it to a definite idea ; as,

The hammer breaks stone.

This shows what *the hammer breaks*.

6. The objective case of a noun becomes a modifier, like an adjective or an adverb, through the help of a preposition : as,

The man with a wooden leg (wooden-legged man) lives (where?) by the mill.

7. The objective case may be added to another noun in the objective case to qualify or explain its meaning ; as,

He sought Paul, the apostle.

150. The arrangement of nouns and pronouns according to their cases is called **declension**, and the recitation of the cases in regular order is called **declining** a noun or pronoun. The noun having but one change of form—the possessive—needs no scheme of declension.

DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS.

	<i>First Person.</i>		<i>Second Person.</i>
	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular and Plural.</i>
<i>Nom. . . .</i>	I	we	you
<i>Poss . . .</i>	my or mine	our or ours	your or yours
<i>Obj. . . .</i>	me	us	you

The declension of the old form of the second person singular is : nom. *thou* ; poss. *thy, thine* ; obj. *thee*.

Third Person.

	<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>	<i>Common.</i>
<i>Nom.</i> . . .	he	she	it	they
<i>Poss.</i> . . .	his	her or hers	its	their or theirs
<i>Obj.</i>	him	her	it	them

SYNOPSIS.—State: the class of pronouns having distinction of persons *by form* ; as to nouns in this respect. Explain: by examples, the use of noun in three persons. Define *person*. State: another modification of pronoun, and its name. Explain: the three cases of pronoun indicated by form ; of noun indicated by use. Define *case*.

Explain: objective after preposition ; how the case of nouns is determined. Define formation of possessive case. Explain: exceptions in forming possessive ; the case without any relation ; the noun and pronoun as modifiers ; in the nominative ; possessive ; substitute for possessive ; nominative after verb ; objective case and predicate ; objective with a preposition as adjective and adverb modifiers ; declension. Decline *the personal pronoun*.

Exercise.

151. Parse the nouns and pronouns according to the model (§83) as here illustrated. Change the possessives with the nouns they qualify into adjective forms or objective cases with a preposition ; also change the prepositional phrases into possessive forms, adjectives, or adverbs, where such changes are practicable.

1. *The frailty of man explains many of his errors.*

Frailty is a noun, —: common, —: neuter gender, —; third person, spoken of: singular number, —; nominative case, as the subject of the verb *explains*.

Man is a noun; common, —; in this case common gender, denoting *humanity*; third person, —; singular number, —; objective case, being the object of the preposition *of*. The phrase *of man* modifies the subject as an adjective, being equivalent to *human*. *Many* is an adjective used as a noun, an indefinite name of a class; neuter gender, —; third person, —; plural number, —; objective case, defining the meaning of the verb *explains*. *His* is a personal pronoun, stands for *man*; masculine gender, third person, —; singular number; possessive case, denoting ownership and thus qualifying *errors*. *Errors* is a noun; common; neuter gender, —; third person, —; plural number; objective case, object of preposition *of*. The phrase *of his errors* qualifies *many* and is an adjective modifier.

2. Fellow citizens, I declare the truth to you.
3. I protest my love for you, and trust yours for me.
4. The flowers of spring are fresh with beauty.
5. James forgot himself in his friends' happiness.
6. Life's shadows are meeting eternity's day.
7. The king's command is the people's law.
8. A man's life is an index to his heart.
9. Beauty is truth; truth is beauty.
10. Among the Hebrews the land was divided by lot.

XX. THE ADJECTIVE—PROPERTIES AND MODIFICATIONS.

152. The adjective is a word used to qualify a noun or pronoun. As a qualifying word it generally describes, limits, or defines the meaning of the noun to which it is attached; as,

<i>good man,</i>	<i>red apple ;</i>
<i>that man,</i>	<i>yonder house.</i>

These qualities are usually expressed, but not asserted, by the adjective, unless by the help of a verb ; as,

The apple is red.

It is in connection with the verb that the pronoun is qualified by an adjective ; as,

I am weary. They are ambitious.

153. The **descriptive adjective** adds an idea of quality ; such as,

a sweet apple, a tall man.

The **definitive adjective** merely points out, limits or selects, without adding an idea of quality ; as,

*the apple, few men ;
many boys, two soldiers.*

154. Some pronouns are classified as adjectives, and are called **adjective pronouns** or **pronominal adjectives**. Among these are *my, mine, his, her, hers, its*, and the plurals *our, ours, your, yours, their, theirs* ; the demonstrative pronouns *this, that, these, those* ; the interrogative and relative pronouns *which* and *what*. These are all **definitive adjectives**.

Another subdivision of definitive adjectives is into **numerals**. They are the adjectives used in counting—*one man, two men, three men*, etc.—called **cardinals** ; and the adjectives used in indicating the order of things arranged in a series—the *first man, second man, third man*—called **ordinals**. The numerals are also used as nouns ; as, *two of the men, the second and third in rank*.

155. The definitive adjectives *an* or *a* and *the* are often called **articles** (§49).

The use of the article *an* or *a* in such connections as, *ten cents an*

hour, preserves the old signification of the word—*ane* or *one*—meaning, *ten cents one hour*.

156. Derivative adjectives are made—

1. From nouns by suffixes *ly, ful, ous, able, less, etc.*; as, *homely, faithful, famous, comfortable, useless*.

2. From adjectives by the use of prefixes; as,
unfaithful, inactive.

3. From nouns combined with adjectives to form compound adjectives; as,

heart-rending, foot-sore.

4. From adverbs combined with adjectives; as,

everlasting, far-sighted.

5. From other adjectives for the purpose of expressing degree; as,

longer, longest.

6. From verbs; as,

giving, having.

157. With the exception of *this* and *that*, adjectives do not change form to indicate number and case. Their only inflection is to express degree.

The simple quality of the adjective is expressed when it is attached to a noun in its ordinary form; as,

a tall man.

When two men are compared, the difference in this quality is expressed by saying of one of them,

He is the taller man.

When more than two men are compared, one of them may be selected as

the tallest man.

158. This modification of adjectives denotes the property called **comparison**; and the word in each of the three forms indicates a **degree** of comparison.

159. *The positive degree denotes the simple quality of the adjective, and is used to qualify one or a class; as, a tall man, tall men.*

160. *The comparative degree denotes a higher degree of the quality expressed by the positive, and is used when two things are compared; as, the taller man.*

161. *The superlative degree denotes the highest degree of the quality, and is used when more than two things are compared; as, the tallest man.*

162. Not all adjectives are compared, because the meaning of some does not admit of comparison. *Perfect* and *dead* are adjectives of this sort. Those that admit of comparison express the advanced degrees of quality either by suffixes or by the use of adverbs of degree; as,

<i>late,</i>	<i>later,</i>	<i>latest;</i>
<i>generous,</i>	<i>more generous,</i>	<i>most generous.</i>

163. *Adjectives of one syllable are regularly compared by adding to the positive *r* or *er* for the comparative, and *st* or *est* for the superlative; as, wise, wiser, wisest.*

A few adjectives of two syllables are compared in this way where the addition of the suffixes is agreeable to the ear; as,

<i>able,</i>	<i>abler,</i>	<i>ablest;</i>
<i>common,</i>	<i>commoner,</i>	<i>commonest;</i>
<i>pretty,</i>	<i>prettier,</i>	<i>prettiest.</i>

164. *Most adjectives of more than one syllable are compared by the addition of adverbs ; as, studious, more studious, most studious.*

165. A few adjectives are compared irregularly ; as,

<i>good,</i>	<i>better,</i>	<i>best ;</i>
<i>bad or ill,</i>	<i>worse,</i>	<i>worst ;</i>
<i>many or much.</i>	<i>more,</i>	<i>most ;</i>
<i>old,</i>	<i>older or elder,</i>	<i>oldest or eldest.</i>

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: two ways of qualifying by adjectives; expression and assertion of quality; how a pronoun is qualified; descriptive and definitive adjectives; what pronouns are adjectives; numerals, two kinds; *an* and *the*; adjectives simple, derived, compound; change of form for what and how, and what called. Name and define the degrees. Explain: what words are not compared; two ways of comparison; the regular rule; for adjectives of more than one syllable; examples of irregular comparison.

Exercise.

166. Parse, with comparison, the adjectives, giving the derivation, if derived. Observe the predicate adjectives and nouns.

1. *It was a feeble, frivolous, fruitless effort.*

Feeble is an adjective ; descriptive, because it expresses a quality ; by the help of the verb *was* asserts a quality ; compared—*feeble, feebler, feeblest* ; positive, because it denotes simple quality ; qualifies the predicate noun *effort*, and with it completes the declaration of the verb *was*, qualifying the subject *it*.

2. Milton and Cowper are poets of high rank.
3. I am joyous over my success.
4. The greatest men are not always the best men.

5. A more beautiful landscape was never seen.
6. Time moves on rapid wings.
7. Sweet are the uses of adversity.
8. His dress was simple and almost rustic.
9. Art is long; life is short.
10. Handsome is that handsome does.
11. Comparisons are odious.
12. That action is best which procures the greatest good to the greatest numbers.
13. He was first in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his fellow-citizens.
14. The blue, the fresh, the ever free!
15. The largest cherries hang on the topmost boughs.
16. All evil deeds have their roots in evil thoughts.
17. There's not a fairer, lovelier clime beneath the heaven.

Exercise.

Form sentences containing adjectives, and parse them.

1. Description of country scenes.
2. Comparison of races of men.
3. Differences in character.
4. Diversities of climate.
5. Kinds of food.

XXI. THE VERB—NUMBER AND PERSON.

167. The one feature that distinguishes a verb from every other word in the sentence is that it asserts or declares something. The verb is the predicate, though often incomplete. It is the one word that makes the sentence different from every other group of words, because by stating or telling something it extends an idea, more or less varied or qualified, into a thought; as,

very good men.

This represents a modified idea of *men* ; but by adding the verb *are respected*, we represent a thought ; thus,

Very good men are respected.

The next feature of a verb relates to what it declares—its meaning and use. **Being** and **action** are different shades of ideas, one of which the verb always declares ; as,

I am. I sit.
The world moves.
The world moves me.

Joined to any subject-word, the verb declares of this subject one or another form of being or action ; as,

I am. I sit. I strike.

The first example is a declaration of simple being ; the second declares a condition of being, and by expressing this condition, tells more of the subject than does the first. The third example asserts positive action of the subject, and would declare more than either of the others if it were helped by an object to show what *I strike*. *I strike him* makes the assertion definite, defining the declaration by expressing the object which receives the action.

168. Since the same verb may mean a condition of being in one case, and action in another, it is not practicable to classify verbs according to their meaning ; but their use constitutes a ground of classification.

In the foregoing examples *strike* is seen to be different from the verbs *am* and *sit*, because it needs the addition of an object-word to denote the person or thing to which the action declared passes over, or is directed. The pronoun *him* or the noun *George* supplies this word ; and because the verb requires such a defining word, it is called a **transitive verb**.

The verb *sit* is used differently. It declares a definite

and complete condition of the subject, and therefore requires no object. It is called an **intransitive verb**.

169. *A transitive verb is one that requires an object to define its declaration.*

170. *An intransitive verb is one whose declaration is definite without an object.*

The verb *to be*, of which the form *am* is given in *I am*, is parsed as an intransitive verb, but its declaration is, in most cases, incomplete.

It may be sufficient to say *Rome was*, meaning that *Rome existed*; but of *George*, who is known to exist, the assertion *George is*, remains incomplete until some word is added either as a predicate noun, *George is a boy*, or as a predicate adjective, *George is faithful*. In these cases, however, the added word is not an object, but explains or qualifies the subject (§52).

171. All verbs require a subject; a transitive verb requires both a subject and an object. The subject is a noun or a word or words used instead of a noun. A noun or pronoun as subject is in the nominative case.

172. The case of the subject does not affect the form of the verb, but the different persons and numbers of the subject require corresponding changes of form in the verb; as,

I give. He gives.

Here the verb has different forms to express the different persons of the subject.

In the sentences *He gives*, *They give*, a difference of form corresponds to the difference of number in the subjects.

The modifications of the verb corresponding to the person and number of its subject are only partial. The plurals of the three personal pronouns—*we*, *you* and *they*—have but one corresponding form in the verb; as,

We give. You give. They give.

In number, the same form of the verb is used with *I*, *you* and *we* ; as,

I give. You give. We give.

The forms corresponding to the singular and plural of the third person sometimes differ; as,

He gives. They give.

173. Whether or not the verb is modified to suit the person and number of its subject, it is always parsed as agreeing with its subject in both ; as, *I give*, where *give* is first person, singular number, because its subject is first person, singular number ; *They give*, where *give* is third person, plural number, for the same reason.

This correspondence and difference appear when the forms are arranged in order :

GIVE.		
<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
<i>1st Per.</i>	I give	We give
<i>2d Per.</i>	You give	You give
<i>3d Per.</i>	He gives	They give

Exercise.

174. Parse the subjects, verbs and their objects, according to the model (§83), parsing the verbs as transitive or intransitive, and giving the person and number.

1. Coming events cast their shadows before.
2. Worth makes the man, and want of it the fellow.
3. Every noble activity makes room for itself.
4. Everything lives, flourishes and decays.
5. I see, but cannot reach the height.
6. Heaven never helps the men who will not act.
7. Keep cool, and you command everybody.
8. Ambition has no rest.
9. Labor is itself a pleasure.
10. The quality of mercy is not strained.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the one feature distinguishing the verb; the next feature, and what the verb declares; the examples *I am, I sit, I strike*; the ground of classification; the difference between transitive and intransitive. Define: *transitive verb; intransitive verb*. Explain: the declaration of the verb *to be*; the requirements of verbs as to subject and object; the case of the subject; what properties of the subject affect the form of the verb; the modifications corresponding to person and number—likeness and difference; how in these respects the verb is parsed. Name the transitive and intransitive verbs in the Exercise.

XXII. THE VERB—TENSE AND MODE.

175. Besides inflection, or changes of form, to express person and number, the verb has some modifications to express the **time** and the **manner** of the action or being spoken of. The first of these changes denoting time is called **tense**; the second, denoting manner, is called **mode**.

176. There are three divisions of time—the **past**, the **present**, and the **future**. The verb by inflection denotes **two** of these divisions of time—present time and past time—and has two corresponding forms of tense, called the **present tense**, as, *I learn*; and the **past tense**, as, *I learned*. These are the only two tenses indicated by the form of the verb itself; all other tenses are indicated by the addition of auxiliary words.

177. The change called **mode** relates to the manner of asserting the action or being.

178. The action or being may be simply declared as a fact; as,

I learn.

This manner of **indicating** the fact is called the **indicative mode**.

179. The action or being may be declared as doubtful, or conditional ; as, with the conjunction *if*,

if I learn.

This mode is called the **subjunctive mode**.

180. The action or being may be declared as a command ; as,

Learn (thou).

This is called the **imperative mode**. In the imperative mode the subject is usually not expressed, but must be understood.

These three are the only modes expressed by any verb without help from other verbs.

181. Two other expressions of the verb, usually termed modes, are, strictly speaking, not modes of declaration, because they declare nothing.

182. The action or being merely expressed, without any assertion with respect to a subject, is called the **infinitive** ; as,

to learn.

This is a **verbal noun**, simply naming the action or being of the verb. It is often used as the subject or object of verbs.

183. Another form expresses action or being in a qualifying way, and because it thus partakes both of the nature of a verb and of an adjective is called the **participle**. It is a **verbal adjective** ; as,

learning, learned.

These primary modes and tenses and expressions of the verb may be given in order.

In the following and in all succeeding paradigms the ancient forms of the second person, singular, are presented, though these are now used only in poetry and in solemn address.

184. INDICATIVE MODE.

<i>Present Tense.</i>		<i>Past Tense.</i>	
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1st Per. I learn	We learn	I learned	We learned
2d Per. Thou learn- est	You learn	Thou learnedst	You learned
3d Per. He learns	They learn	He learned	They learned

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

<i>Present Tense.</i>		<i>Past Tense.</i>	
<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I learn	If we learn	If I learned	If we learned
2. If thou learnest	If you learn	If thou learn- edst	If you learned
3. If he learn	If they learn	If he learned	If they learned

IMPERATIVE MODE.

learn

INFINITIVE.

to learn

PARTICIPLE.

Present.
learning

Past.
learned

185. Besides the tenses and modes presented in this scheme, there are other declarations of time and manner of action and being which the verb is made to express. There are divisions of **past time** to be expressed, and a form for the declaration of action or being in **future time** has not been given. A way or manner of asserting action or being as a necessity or possibility—another **mode**—is yet to be found.

186. To make these forms of tense and mode, a few helping or **auxiliary verbs** are used. One of these is the verb *have*. Others are *can, may, shall, will, must* and *ought*, and the past forms, *might, could, would, should*.

187. With these auxiliary verbs are formed phrases which are regarded as forms of the verb itself. With the form of the past tense *learned*, and the verb *have*, we make the **present-perfect tense**, denoting the action as completed at the present time ; as,

I have learned.

188. With another form of *have* is formed the **past-perfect tense**, denoting the action as completed at some past time ; as,

I had learned.

189. The verbs *shall* and *will*, with the form of present tense, give us the **future tense**, denoting action as yet to take place ; as,

I shall learn. You will learn.

190. Again, with the auxiliaries *shall* and *have*, we get the **future-perfect tense**, denoting action completed at some future time ; as,

I shall have learned.

191. With the auxiliary verbs is formed the **potential mode**, asserting the manner of the action as possible or necessary ; as,

I can, may or must learn.

This mode is expressed under four tenses :

Present, *I may learn.*

Past, *I might learn.*

Present-perfect, *I may have learned.*

Past-perfect, *I might have learned.*

192. There are other ways of expressing the present and past tenses, besides those given. By the aid of the verb **do** we may say,

I do learn, I did learn, instead of,

I learn and I learned.

This is called the **emphatic form** of the verb.

193. Also with the verb *be*, as an auxiliary, we may say, in place of the regular forms of the present and past tenses,

I am learning, I was learning.

Here the participle *learning* has the force of a predicate adjective, and the action is expressed as continuous. This is called the **progressive form** of the verb.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the changes of the verb to express time and manner in the declaration; the three divisions of time; the names of those forms of the verb denoting time and manner; the tenses formed by inflection; the modes; the infinitive; the participle; the tenses and mode not formed from the verb itself; what are auxiliary verbs; what tenses are formed with them, and how; the potential mode and its tenses, and how formed; the emphatic form of the verb; the progressive form.

XXIII. DEFINITIONS.

TENSE.

194. *Tense is the form of the verb used to denote the time of the action or being.*

195. *The present tense denotes the time of the action or being expressed by the verb as present; as, I learn.*

196. *The past tense denotes the time of the action or being as past; as, I learned.*

197. *The present-perfect tense denotes the action or being as completed at the present time ; as, I have learned.*

198. *The past-perfect tense denotes the action or being as completed at some past time ; as, I had learned.*

199. *The future tense denotes the time of the action or being as future ; as, I shall learn, You will learn.*

200. *The future-perfect tense denotes the action or being as to be completed at some future time ; as, I shall have learned.*

MODE.

201. *Mode is that form of the verb which indicates the manner of the assertion.*

202. *The indicative mode declares the action or being of the verb simply as a fact, either present, past, or future ; as,*

<i>Pres.,</i>	I learn.	<i>Past,</i>	I learned.
<i>Pres.-per.,</i>	I have learned.	<i>Past-per.,</i>	I had learned.
	<i>Future,</i>		I shall learn.
	<i>Future-per.,</i>		I shall have learned.

203. *The subjunctive mode declares the action or being as doubtful or conditional ; as,*

<i>Pres.,</i>	If I learn.	<i>Past,</i>	If I learned.
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204. *The potential mode declares the necessity or possibility of the action or being ; as,*

<i>Pres.,</i>	I may, can, or must —.	<i>Past,</i>	I might, could, would, or should —.
<i>Pres-per.,</i>	I may, can, etc., have —.	<i>Past-per.,</i>	I might, could, etc., have —.

205. *The imperative mode declares the action or being as a command ; as,*

<i>2d Per.,</i>	Learn (thou or) you.	Learn you (or ye).
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206. *The infinitive as a verbal noun expresses the action or being without declaring it ; as,*

Pres., to learn. Past, to have learned.

207. *The participle expresses the action or being in a qualifying sense, as a verbal adjective ; as,*

Pres., learning. Past, learned. Past-per., having learned.

208. *The progressive form of the verb is expressed by the verb be as an auxiliary with the present participle ; as,*

Ind.-pres., I am learning. Past, I was learning.

209. *The emphatic form of the verb is expressed by the verb do with the infinitive, the "to" being omitted ; as,*

Ind.-pres., I do learn. Past, I did learn.

210. *The interrogative form of the verb is expressed by the use of the regular, emphatic, and progressive forms, placing the auxiliary verbs before the pronouns ; as,*

Do I learn ? Have I learned ? Shall I learn ? Am I learning ?

XXIV. CONJUGATION.

211. The modes and tenses of any verb may be formed from the present and past tenses of the indicative mode, and the past participle, together with the auxiliary verbs. Hence these three forms are called the **principal parts** of the verb. When the modes and tenses are thus formed, and are arranged in regular order, the verb is said to be **conjugated**.

In the third person, *he, she, or it*, or any noun of that person and number, may be used. In the tenses of the potential mode, *can* or *must* may be used for *may*, and *could, would* or *should* may be substituted for *might*.

CONJUGATION OF "TO LEARN."

212. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres., learn *Past*, learned *Past Part.*, learned

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I learn	We learn
2. { You learn <i>or</i> { Thou learnest	You learn
3. He learns	They learn

Past Tense.

1. I learned	We learned
2. { You learned <i>or</i> { Thou learnedst	You learned
3. He learned	They learned

Present-Perfect Tense.

1. I have learned	We have learned
2. { You have learned <i>or</i> { Thou hast learned	You have learned
3. He has learned	They have learned

Past-Perfect Tense.

1. I had learned	We had learned
2. { You had learned <i>or</i> { Thou hadst learned	You had learned
3. He had learned	They had learned

Future Tense.

1. I shall * learn	We shall learn
2. { You shall learn <i>or</i> { Thou shalt learn	You shall learn
3. He shall learn	They shall learn

* Substitute *will*.

Future-Perfect Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I shall have learned | We shall have learned |
| 2. { You shall have learned <i>or</i> | You shall have learned |
| { Thou shalt have learned | |
| 3. He shall have learned | They shall have learned |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------|
| 1. If I learn | If we learn |
| 2. { If you learn <i>or</i> | If you learn |
| { If thou learnest | |
| 3. If he learn | If they learn |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|
| 1. If I learned | If we learned |
| 2. { If you learned <i>or</i> | If you learned |
| { If thou learnedst | |
| 3. If he learned | If they learned |

POTENTIAL MODE.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------------|
| 1. I may learn | We may learn |
| 2. { You may learn <i>or</i> | You may learn |
| { Thou mayst learn | |
| 3. He may learn | They may learn |

Past Tense.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------|
| 1. I might learn | We might learn |
| 2. { You might learn <i>or</i> | You might learn |
| { Thou mightest learn | |
| 3. He might learn | They might learn |

Present-Perfect Tense.

- | | | |
|----|----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. | I may have learned | We may have learned |
| 2. | { You may have learned <i>or</i> | You may have learned |
| | { Thou mayst have learned | |
| 3. | He may have learned | They may have learned |

Past-Perfect Tense.

- | | | |
|----|------------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. | I might have learned | We might have learned |
| 2. | { You might have learned <i>or</i> | You might have learned |
| | { Thou mightest have learned | |
| 3. | He might have learned | They might have learned |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

- | | | |
|----|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
| 2. | Learn you (<i>or</i> thou) | Learn you (<i>or</i> ye) |
|----|-----------------------------|---------------------------|

INFINITIVE.

<i>Pres.</i> , to learn	<i>Past</i> , to have learned
-------------------------	-------------------------------

PARTICIPLE.

<i>Pres.</i> , learning	<i>Past</i> , learned
-------------------------	-----------------------

PROGRESSIVE FORM.

<i>Pres.</i> ,	I am learning
<i>Pres.-per.</i> ,	I have been learning
<i>Past</i> ,	I was learning
<i>Past-per.</i> ,	I had been learning

(*Other modes and tenses in like manner.*)

EMPHATIC FORM.

<i>Pres.</i> , I do learn	<i>Imperative</i> , Do you learn
<i>Past</i> , I did learn	

INTERROGATIVE FORM.

Do I learn? Did I learn? Have I learned? Had I learned? etc.

Exercise.

213. Give the mode, tense, number and person of each of the following verbs. Remember that *can* and *must* are alternative forms of *may*, that *will* is an alternative form of *shall*, and that *could*, *would* and *should* are alternative forms of *might*.

- | | | |
|------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. They have learned. | 6. We may see. | 11. if they have taught |
| 2. We could walk. | 7. to return | 12. It will hear. |
| 3. I have been loving. | 8. returning | 13. Did he love? |
| 4. They will hear. | 9. He could have taught. | 14. Is he loving? |
| 5. He can see. | 10. if you teach | 15. teach |

Exercise.

214. Form short sentences, and parse the verbs.

Leave (participle); like (subjunctive); come (imperative); omit (imperative); return (participle); read (indicative); laugh (indicative, future); hurry (potential).

XXV. THE VERB—DERIVATION AND CLASSES.

215. **Simple verbs** are those whose origin cannot be traced to other words : as,

<i>go.</i>	<i>be,</i>	<i>see,</i>
<i>sit,</i>	<i>look,</i>	<i>give.</i>

216. **Derivative verbs** are those which are made from adjectives, nouns or other verbs.

1. Some verbs are made from adjectives by adding suffixes ; as,

harden, *fertilize.*

2. Nouns with prefixes may become verbs ; as,

behead, *enthone.*

From adjectives we have,

belittle, *renew.*

From verbs,

displease, *unfasten,*
mistake, *repay.*

3. By prefixes of adverbs and prepositions compound verbs are formed ; as,

overturn, *forebode.*
outgrow, *upset.*
withdraw, *outnumber.*

4. By a change of the vowel the verb *sat* is derived from *sit* ; *fell* from *fall* ; *lay* from *lie*.

5. Some nouns and adjectives are used as verbs without essential change ; as,

to face, *to throng,* *to smooth,*
to worship, *to crowd,* *to brave.*

217. The formation of modes and tenses divides verbs into **regular** and **irregular verbs**.

218. A *regular verb* forms its *past tense* and *past participle* by adding *d* or *ed* to the present ; as, pres. *love*, past *loved*, past part. *loved*.

219. An *irregular verb* is one whose *past tense* and *past participle* are not formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the present ; as, pres., *go* ; past, *went* ; past part., *gone*.

220. Verbs used without a definite person or actor for subject are called **impersonal verbs** ; as,

it rains, *it snows.*

Many verbs are used impersonally with *it* for the subject.

In some cases *it* is the formal or unreal subject, helping the verb to express action or being in an indefinite manner, the verb being followed by a word or phrase which is the real subject ; as,

It is I who did it. It is pleasant to ride.

221. Some verbs already spoken of as auxiliary verbs have neither infinitives nor participles ; as,

shall, will, may,
can, must, ought.

222. *Quoth* is used only in the past tense ; *beware* is also used in but few tenses. Such verbs are called **defective verbs**.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: simple and derivative verbs; formation from suffixes: prefixes; by change of vowel sound; without change; regular verb; irregular. Define: impersonal verbs; defective verbs.

Exercise.

223. Parse the verbs, giving their principal parts and pointing out their subjects. In example 1, *as* and *on* are used as adverbs.

1. It snows, quoth Robert, as he put on his coat.
2. In winter it snows, and in summer it rains.
3. We should beware of indulgence in the least excess.
4. Hark! hark! the lark at heaven's gate sings.
5. We do not count a man's years until he has nothing else to count.
6. The fur that warms a monarch warmed a bear.
7. One day teaches the other.
8. Leave to the nightingale her shady wood.
9. To shoot at crows is powder thrown away.
10. While the sun was setting he sat upon the hill.
11. Adams and Jefferson are gone.

221. LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

Those marked * are also regular.

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	
abide	abode	abode	cleave,	{	clave	cleft
arise	arose	arisen	to split		cleft	cleaved
awake *	awoke	awaked	cling		clung	clung
be {	was	been	clothe *		clad	clad
am {			come		came	come
bear	{	born	cost		cost	cost
		bore	borne	creep		crept
beat	beat	{	crow *		crew	crowed
			beaten	cut		cut
begin	began	begun	dare, to {	}	durst	dared
behold	beheld	beheld	venture {			
bend *	bent	bent	deal		dealt	dealt
bereave *	bereft	bereft	dig *		dug	dug
beseech	besought	besought	do		did	done
bid	{	bidden	draw		drew	drawn
		bid	dream *		dreamt	dreamt
bind	bound	bound	drink		drank	{
bite	bit	{	drive		drove	
bleed	bled		bitten	dwelt *		dwelt
blow	blew	blown	eat	{	eat	eaten
break	broke	broken	ate			
breed	bred	bred	fall		fell	fallen
bring	brought	brought	feed		fed	fed
build *	built	built	feel		felt	felt
burn *	burnt	burnt	fight		fought	fought
burst	burst	burst	find		found	found
buy	bought	bought	flee		fled	fled
cast	cast	cast	fling		flung	flung
catch *	caught	caught	fly		flew	flown
chide	chid	{	forsake		forsook	forsaken
			chidden	freeze		froze
choose	chose	chosen	get		got	{
cleave *	clave	cleaved		got	gotten	

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
<i>gild</i> *	<i>gilt</i>	<i>gilt</i>	<i>read</i>	<i>read</i>	<i>read</i>
<i>gird</i> *	<i>girt</i>	<i>girt</i>	<i>rend</i>	<i>rent</i>	<i>rent</i>
<i>give</i>	<i>gave</i>	<i>given</i>	<i>rid</i>	<i>rid</i>	<i>rid</i>
<i>go</i>	<i>went</i>	<i>gone</i>	<i>ride</i>	<i>rode</i>	<i>ridden</i>
<i>grave</i> *	<i>graved</i>	<i>graven</i>	<i>ring</i>	{ <i>rung</i>	<i>rung</i>
<i>grind</i>	<i>ground</i>	<i>ground</i>		{ <i>rang</i>	
<i>grow</i>	<i>grew</i>	<i>grown</i>	<i>rise</i>	<i>rose</i>	<i>risen</i>
<i>hang</i> *	<i>hung</i>	<i>hung</i>	<i>rive</i> *	<i>rived</i>	<i>riven</i>
<i>have</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>had</i>	<i>run</i>	{ <i>ran</i>	<i>run</i>
<i>hear</i>	<i>heard</i>	<i>heard</i>		{ <i>run</i>	
<i>hew</i> *	<i>hewed</i>	<i>hewn</i>	<i>saw</i> *	<i>sawed</i>	<i>sawn</i>
<i>hide</i>	<i>hid</i>	{ <i>hidden</i>	<i>say</i>	<i>said</i>	<i>said</i>
		{ <i>hid</i>	<i>see</i>	<i>saw</i>	<i>seen</i>
<i>hit</i>	<i>hit</i>	<i>hit</i>	<i>seek</i>	<i>sought</i>	<i>sought</i>
<i>hold</i>	<i>held</i>	{ <i>held</i>	<i>sell</i>	<i>sold</i>	<i>sold</i>
		{ <i>holden</i>	<i>send</i>	<i>sent</i>	<i>sent</i>
<i>hurt</i>	<i>hurt</i>	<i>hurt</i>	<i>set</i>	<i>set</i>	<i>set</i>
<i>keep</i>	<i>kept</i>	<i>kept</i>	<i>shake</i>	<i>shook</i>	<i>shaken</i>
<i>kneel</i> *	<i>knelt</i>	<i>knelt</i>	<i>shape</i> *	<i>shaped</i>	<i>shapen</i>
<i>knit</i> *	<i>knit</i>	<i>knit</i>	<i>shave</i> *	<i>shaved</i>	<i>shaven</i>
<i>know</i>	<i>knew</i>	<i>known</i>	<i>shear</i> *	<i>sheared</i>	<i>shorn</i>
<i>lade</i> *	<i>laded</i>	<i>laden</i>	<i>shed</i>	<i>shed</i>	<i>shed</i>
<i>lay</i>	<i>laid</i>	<i>laid</i>	<i>shine</i> *	<i>shone</i>	<i>shone</i>
<i>lead</i>	<i>led</i>	<i>led</i>	<i>shoe</i>	<i>shod</i>	<i>shod</i>
<i>leave</i>	<i>left</i>	<i>left</i>	<i>shoot</i>	<i>shot</i>	<i>shot</i>
<i>lend</i>	<i>lent</i>	<i>lent</i>	<i>show</i> *	<i>showed</i>	<i>shown</i>
<i>let</i>	<i>let</i>	<i>let</i>	<i>shred</i>	<i>shred</i>	<i>shred</i>
<i>lie, to lie</i> }			<i>shrink</i>	{ <i>shrunk</i>	<i>shrunk</i>
<i>down</i> }	<i>lay</i>	<i>lain</i>		{ <i>shrank</i>	<i>shrunken</i>
<i>lose</i>	<i>lost</i>	<i>lost</i>	<i>shut</i>	<i>shut</i>	<i>shut</i>
<i>make</i>	<i>made</i>	<i>made</i>	<i>sing</i>	{ <i>sung</i>	<i>sung</i>
<i>mean</i>	<i>meant</i>	<i>meant</i>		{ <i>sang</i>	
<i>meet</i>	<i>met</i>	<i>met</i>	<i>sink</i>	{ <i>sunk</i>	<i>sunk</i>
<i>mow</i> *	<i>mowed</i>	<i>mown</i>		{ <i>sank</i>	
<i>pay</i>	<i>paid</i>	<i>paid</i>	<i>sit</i>	<i>sat</i>	<i>sat</i>
<i>pen</i> *, <i>to</i> }			<i>slay</i>	<i>slew</i>	<i>slain</i>
<i>coop</i> }	<i>pent</i>	<i>pent</i>	<i>sleep</i>	<i>slept</i>	<i>slept</i>
<i>put</i>	<i>put</i>	<i>put</i>	<i>slide</i>	<i>slid</i>	{ <i>slid</i>
<i>quit</i> *	<i>quit</i>	<i>quit</i>			{ <i>slidden</i>

<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>	<i>Pres.</i>	<i>Past Ind.</i>	<i>Past Part.</i>
sling	slung	slung	string	strung	strung
slink	slunk	slunk	strive	strove	striven
slit	slit	{ slit	swear	swore	sworn
		{ slitted	sweat *	sweat	sweat
smite	smote	{ smitten	sweep	swept	swept
		{ smit	swell *	swelled	swollen
sow *	sowed	sown	swim	swam	swum
speak	spoke	spoken	swing	swung	swung
speed *	sped	sped	take	took	taken
spell *	spelt	spelt	teach	taught	taught
spend	spent	spent	tear	tore	torn
spill *	spilt	spilt	tell	told	told
spin	spun	spun	think	thought	thought
spit	{ spit	spit	thrive *	throve	thriven
	{ spat		throw	threw	thrown
split	split	split	thrust	thrust	thrust
spread	spread	spread	tread	trod	{ trod
spring	{ sprung	sprung	wax *	waxed	waxen
	{ sprang				
stand	stood	stood	wear	wore	worn
stay *	staid	staid	weave	wove	woven
steal	stole	stolen	weep	wept	wept
stick	stuck	stuck	wet *	wet	wet
sting	stung	stung	whet *	whet	whet
strew *	strewed	strewn	win	won	won
stride	strode	{ strid	wind	wound	wound
		{ stridden	work *	wrought	wrought
strike	struck	{ struck	wring	wrung	wrung
		{ stricken	write	wrote	written

XXVI. THE VERB-VOICE.

225. Besides the forms of the verb used to denote time and manner of declaration, there is another modification which shows the relation of the verb to its subject.

John struck James.

In this sentence, *John* is the subject or actor spoken of, and *James* receives the action expressed by the verb, being its object.

James was struck by John.

In this sentence *James* is both subject and recipient of the action expressed by the verb.

226. In the first sentence the verb declares the subject as actor, and is said to be in the **active voice**. In the second sentence the verb declares the subject as acted upon, and is said to be in the **passive voice**. The form of the verb indicates the voice in each case. In the one case the form is *struck*; in the other case the form is *was struck*.

227. It will be seen that only the **transitive verb**, which requires an object, can have the modification of voice, for it is the **object-word** of the **active voice** that becomes the **subject-word** of the **passive voice**; as,

Birds lay eggs. Eggs are laid by birds.

228. *Voice is that modification of the verb by which it declares the subject either as acting or as acted upon.*

229. *The active voice is that which declares the subject as actor.*

230. *The passive voice is that which declares the subject as acted upon.*

231. The past participle of the transitive verb contains the **idea** of the passive voice. The stick that John breaks *is broken*. The past participle represents the result or effect of the action of the verb, and with the different forms of the verb *be* comprises all the forms of the passive voice; as,

He loves me. I am loved.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the two examples of the use of the verb with respect to the actor; name of the modification; what verbs have it; relation of object and subject in the two voices. Define: *voice*; the two voices. Explain: what part of the verb contains the idea of the passive voice.

CONJUGATION OF "TO BE" AND "TO BE LOVED."

232. The verb *to be* is an irregular intransitive verb. The verb *to love* is a regular transitive verb, whose past participle is *loved*. Its passive voice is formed by adding the participle *loved* to the different mode and tense forms of *be*.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

	<i>to be</i>	<i>to love</i>
<i>Present,</i>	am	love
<i>Past,</i>	was	loved
<i>Past participle,</i>	been	loved

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I am	I am loved
2. { You are <i>or</i>	{ You are loved <i>or</i>
{ Thou art	{ Thou art loved
3. He is	He is loved

Plural.

1. We are	We are loved
2. You are	You are loved
3. They are	They are loved

*Past Tense.***Singular.**

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. I was | I was loved |
| 2. { You were <i>or</i> | { You were loved <i>or</i> |
| { Thou wast | { Thou wast loved |
| 3. He was | He was loved |

Plural.

- | | |
|--------------|-----------------|
| 1. We were | We were loved |
| 2. You were | You were loved |
| 3. They were | They were loved |

*Present-Perfect Tense.***Singular.**

- | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. I have been | I have been loved |
| 2. { You have been <i>or</i> | { You have been loved <i>or</i> |
| { Thou hast been | { Thou hast been loved |
| 3. He has been | He has been loved |

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------|----------------------|
| 1. We have been | We have been loved |
| 2. You have been | You have been loved |
| 3. They have been | They have been loved |

*Past-Perfect Tense.***Singular.**

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I had been | I had been loved |
| 2. { You had been <i>or</i> | { You had been loved <i>or</i> |
| { Thou hadst been | { Thou hadst been loved |
| 3. He had been | He had been loved |

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------|---------------------|
| 1. We had been | We had been loved |
| 2. You had been | You had been loved |
| 3. They had been | They had been loved |

*Future Tense.***Singular.**

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I shall be | I shall be loved |
| 2. { You shall be <i>or</i> | { You shall be loved <i>or</i> |
| { Thou shalt be | { Thou shalt be loved |
| 3. He shall be | He shall be loved |

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------|---------------------|
| 1. We shall be | We shall be loved |
| 2. You shall be | You shall be loved |
| 3. They shall be | They shall be loved |

*Future-Perfect Tense.***Singular.**

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--|
| 1. I shall have been | I shall have been loved |
| 2. { You shall have been <i>or</i> | { You shall have been
loved <i>or</i> |
| { Thou shalt have been | |
| 3. He shall have been | He shall have been loved |

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. We shall have been | We shall have been loved |
| 2. You shall have been | You shall have been loved |
| 3. They shall have been | They shall have been loved |

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

*Present Tense.***Singular.**

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. If I am * | If I am loved |
| 2. { If you are <i>or</i> | { If you are loved <i>or</i> |
| { If thou art | { If thou art loved |
| 3. If he is | If he is loved |

* The forms "If I be," "If you be," etc., of the present subjunctive are now but little used.

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------|-------------------|
| 1. If we are | If we are loved |
| 2. If you are | If you are loved |
| 3. If they are | If they are loved |

*Past Tense.***Singular.**

- | | |
|----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. If I were | If I were loved |
| 2. { If you were <i>or</i> | { If you were loved <i>or</i> |
| { If thou wert | { If thou wert loved |
| 3. If he were | If he were loved |

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------|--------------------|
| 1. If we were | If we were loved |
| 2. If you were | If you were loved |
| 3. If they were | If they were loved |

POTENTIAL MODE.

*Present Tense.***Singular.**

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I may be | I may be loved |
| 2. { You may be <i>or</i> | { You may be loved <i>or</i> |
| { Thou mayst be | { Thou mayst be loved |
| 3. He may be | He may be loved |

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------|-------------------|
| 1. We may be | We may be loved |
| 2. You may be | You may be loved |
| 3. They may be | They may be loved |

*Past Tense.***Singular.**

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I might be | I might be loved |
| 2. { You might be <i>or</i> | { You might be loved <i>or</i> |
| { Thou mightest be | { Thou mightest be loved |
| 3. He might be | He might be loved |

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------|---------------------|
| 1. We might be | We might be loved |
| 2. You might be | You might be loved |
| 3. They might be | They might be loved |

*Present-Perfect Tense.***Singular.**

- | | |
|----------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I may have been | I may have been loved |
| 2. { You may have been <i>or</i> | { You may have been |
| { Thou mayst have been | { loved <i>or</i> |
| | { Thou mayst have been |
| | { loved |
| 3. He may have been | He may have been loved |

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. We may have been | We may have been loved |
| 2. You may have been | You may have been loved |
| 3. They may have been | They may have been loved |

*Past-Perfect Tense.***Singular.**

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I might have been | I might have been loved |
| 2. { You might have been <i>or</i> | { You might have been |
| { Thou mightest have been | { loved <i>or</i> |
| | { Thou mightest have |
| | { been loved |
| 3. He might have been | He might have been loved |

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. We might have been | We might have been loved |
| 2. You might have been | You might have been loved |
| 3. They might have been | They might have been loved |

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Singular.

- | | |
|----------------------|--------------------------------|
| Be, be you <i>or</i> | Be loved <i>or</i> |
| Be thou | Be you (<i>or</i> thou) loved |

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------------|
| Be <i>or</i> | Be loved <i>or</i> |
| Be (<i>ye or</i>) you | Be (<i>ye or</i>) you loved |

INFINITIVE MODE.

- | | | |
|-----------------|--------------|--------------------|
| <i>Present,</i> | to be | to be loved |
| <i>Past,</i> | to have been | to have been loved |

PARTICIPLE.

- | | | |
|----------------------|-------------|-------------------|
| <i>Present,</i> | being | being loved |
| <i>Past,</i> | been | loved |
| <i>Past-Perfect,</i> | having been | having been loved |

Exercise.

233. In what voice, mode, tense, person and number is each verb? Explain these properties. Analyze the verb-phrases, and point out the auxiliaries with which they are composed.

1. *They might have been lost.*

Lost is an irregular verb; principal parts, *lose, lost, lost*; transitive. requires an object; passive voice, the

subject receiving the action declared ; potential mode, expressing possibility ; past-perfect tense, denoting completion of the possibility at some past time ; third person, spoken of ; plural number, —. As a verb-phrase, it is composed of the past participle *lost*, with the auxiliaries *have been* and *might* helping the verb to express the properties described.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 2. You are loved. | 10. if you were |
| 3. Thou wert loved. | 11. if they have been seen |
| 4. I was. | 12. having been ploughed |
| 5. It was loved. | 13. She might have been trusted. |
| 6. He had been turned. | 14. It must be saved. |
| 7. She will have been taught. | 15. being launched |
| 8. They must be aided. | 16. Be gone. |
| 9. You may have been urged. | 17. Go. |

Exercise.

234. Give the voice, mode, tense, number and person of the verbs.

1. He will be attacked if he is seen.
2. Where can we be protected from all evil ?
3. Wheresoever the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered together.
4. No excellence can be secured without labor.
5. What cannot be cured must be endured.
6. Some remedies are worse than the disease.
7. Every man is to be trusted in his own art.
8. We are not built like a ship to be tossed, but like a house to stand.

XXVII.—THE ADVERB—PROPERTIES AND MODIFICATIONS.

235. The adverb, like the adjective, is a qualifying word. The adjective adds an idea to the noun, and the adverb

adds an idea to the verb ; the adverb also qualifies adjectives and other adverbs ; as,

I speak softly.
a truly eloquent speech.
I speak very softly.

Adverbs sometimes qualify prepositions ; as,

a man far above the average.

They are also used like predicate adjectives ; as,

The fire is out.
The sun is down.

Adverbs have certain types of meaning according to which they may be classified :

236. Adverbs of **manner** and **quality** qualify a verb by answering the question, *How?* in regard to the action or being declared ; as,

He did well.

This class includes such words as

truly, ill, so,
thus, sweetly, somehow.

237. Adverbs of **measure** and **degree** answer the question *How much?* in regard to the action or being ; as,

He played enough.

In this class are,

quite, little, much, more, very, too, scarcely.

Adverbs themselves are mostly qualified by adverbs of degree ; as,

very much.

238. Adverbs of **place** and **motion** answer the questions,

Where? Whither? in regard to the being or action expressed by the verb ; as,

here, there, below,
above, in, out.

239. Adverbs of **time** and **succession** answer the questions, *When? How long?* as,

then, now, lately,
often, hereafter, seldom.

Some express definite order : as,

first, secondly.

240. Some adverbs are used as connectives, and may be called **conjunctive adverbs**, qualifying two words in different clauses of a sentence. Among these are :

when, while, where, till,
as, whether, before, since ;

as,

He will be here when the time arrives.

241. Conjunctive adverbs are used to join the dependent to the independent clause, in a complex sentence ; as,

He will be here. The time comes.

These two sentences are connected thus :

He will be here when the time comes.

The adverb *when* joins the clauses and qualifies the verbs *will be* and *comes*.

242. *Yes* and *No*, called **responsives**, are not, strictly speaking, adverbs, because they do not qualify other words.

They are **independent answers**, and indicate an affirmative or a negative reply to a question ; as,

Did you go? Answer, No (I did not go).

The *No* carries the whole sentence, *I did not go*.

243. Some prepositions were originally adverbs, and are occasionally used as such. They are *to, in, on, up, and off* ; as,

He put on his coat. He came in. He ran off.

244. In regard to their **form**, adverbs are **simple** or **derivative**.

Simple adverbs are such as *enough, much, so, often*.

Derivative adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding the suffix *ly* ; as,

sweetly, solemnly.

Adjectives ending in *ble* drop the *e* and add *y* ; as,

ably, terribly.

Both nouns and adjectives form adverbs with the suffix *wise* ; as,

likewise, lengthwise.

Adverbs are derived from adverbs by using the suffix *ward* ; as,

downward, upward, outward.

245. A few adverbs change their form, like adjectives, to express **degrees of comparison** ; as,

soon, sooner, soonest.

Adverbs of quality are compared by adding other adverbs of degree ; as,

more wisely, most wisely.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain : the distinction between the adjective and the adverb; what three kinds of words the adverb qualifies; what other kind; classified how; each class with examples; conjunctive adverbs; how they connect clauses; in what kind of sentences; *yes* and *no*; prepositions as adverbs; adverbs classed as to form; derivation from adjectives; from nouns; comparison by inflection; by other adverbs.

Exercise.

246. Parse the adverbs, giving their derivation. Point out the complex sentences, the clauses composing them and the conjunctives.

1. The work moved on most heavily and clumsily.
2. He judges not wisely nor safely.
3. Terribly and frightfully the tempest roared.
4. We generally find comfort where we find industry.
5. An old man is twice a child.
6. There goes the swallow.
7. While I muse, the fire burns.
8. Tarry till I come.
9. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
10. When faith is lost, when honor dies, the man is dead.
11. Where there's a will, there's a way.
12. We calmly view the joys of yesterday.
13. Once, twice, thrice, the old bell solemnly sounded.

Exercise.

247. Form short sentences containing adverbs.

1. Events that happen at the same time or place, or that depend on one another; as,

I shall be ready to go when I have finished my work.

2. The place, time, season or circumstances in which metals abound, flowers blossom, or fruits are gathered.

XXVIII. THE PREPOSITION—PROPERTIES.

248. The preposition shows a subordinate relation between words and phrases. It is usually attached to a noun or pronoun denoting the object to which some other part of the thought bears the relation expressed by it. This noun or pronoun is in the objective case ; as,

He depends on me, not on I.

The noun or pronoun thus attached to the preposition may be connected by it with any other part of speech, and when so joined is equivalent to an adjective or to an adverb ; as,

A man of force = A forcible man.

He speaks with force = He speaks forcibly.

1. A prepositional phrase (§61) may qualify an adjective, as well as a verb or a noun ; as,

good for food.

2. Instead of a noun or a pronoun, a preposition may have for its object an adverb ; as,

up there, down here, from behind.

3. The noun or pronoun which is the object of a preposition may occur in the sentence separated from the preposition of which it is the object ; as,

Whom did you refer to? = To whom did you refer?

This separation is quite frequent in poetry ; as,

the busy world around.

He sailed the ocean o'er.

4. A preposition attached to a verb or participle, and not followed by an object, has the force of an adverb ; as,

You are not the person I took you for.

a case attended to. disposed of.

249. Simple prepositions include such as

by, at, after, to, under,
up, through, for, with, in.

250. Derivative prepositions come from nouns and adjectives, or are compounded from verbs or other prepositions; as,

across, beside, around,
into, before, throughout.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the nature of a preposition; words to which it may be attached; the objective case after it; the offices to which it introduces the noun and pronoun; what other word it may qualify; what other word it may have as object; separation from its object; its force alone with a verb or participle; simple prepositions: derivatives.

Exercise.

251. Parse the prepositions. Explain the force of the phrases as modifiers, and point out the parts of the sentence which they modify.

1. He liked to play with his children.
2. He complained of the impiety and immorality of his age.
3. The tissue of the lungs is of a spongy nature.
4. It is chiefly through books that we enjoy intercourse with superior minds.
5. In the best books great men talk to us.
6. It is of the highest advantage to gain instruction from another's folly.
7. He who has property in the soil has the same up to the sky.
8. The nest of the duck is made under a bush not far from the water.
9. A bird in the hands is worth two in the bush.
10. A cripple in the right way will beat a racer in the wrong way.
11. After the battle of Waterloo, Napoleon was banished to St. Helena in the South Atlantic Ocean.
12. Through camp and court he bore the trophies of a conqueror.
13. The island of Britain was the latest of Rome's conquests in the West.

XXIX. THE CONJUNCTION—PROPERTIES.

252. Both prepositions and conjunctions are connecting words ; but the difference between them is that prepositions show subordinate relation between the meanings of words and phrases, while conjunctions show the equal rank between the meanings of words and phrases, and either equal or unequal rank between the meanings of clauses.

253. The conjunction joins sentences (§69). It also connects words in the same sentence, as two or more subjects, predicates, or objects of a verb.

254. Words used in the same way, or having the same construction, are said to have the same rank, or order, and are called **coördinate words**.

Time and tide wait for no man.

This is a sentence in which *time* and *tide* are words of equal rank because they have the same construction, as subjects of the same verb.

255. Simple sentences or clauses that make complete sense when standing alone are **coördinate sentences** and clauses ; as,

He came. I went.

256. The conjunctions that merely join words or clauses of equal rank are called **coördinate conjunctions** ; as,

time and tide ; He came, but I went.

Coördinate conjunctions are subdivided into four classes, known as **copulative**, **alternative**, **correlative**, and **adversative conjunctions**.

Coordinate conjunctions join words or clauses of equal rank.

257. The coördinate conjunctions most commonly used are *and, but, or, for*. *And*, because it couples sentences or their parts, is called a **copulative conjunction**. *Too, likewise*, and some others have a similar use.

258. *Or, either, else, neither, nor*, are called **alternative conjunctions**. When they occur in pairs—as, *either, or; neither, nor*—they are called **correlative conjunctions**.

259. *But, still, yet, however*, etc., joining something of an opposite nature to that which precedes, are called **adversative conjunctions**.

260. Clauses of different ranks, one dependent upon or subordinate to the other, as we have seen, are connected by relative pronouns and adverbs, thus forming the complex sentence.

261. Such clauses are sometimes joined by conjunctions which show the relation of the clauses. These conjunctions are of a peculiar class, and are called **subordinate conjunctions**; as,

I shall go, if you desire.

Here the meaning of the clause *you desire* depends upon the clause *I shall go*, and this dependence is indicated by the conjunction *if*.

Subordinate conjunctions join subordinate or dependent clauses to those upon which they depend.

Subordinate conjunctions denoting time and place include :

(1) Some adverbs used as conjunctions : as,

where, when, while.

(2) Some prepositions ; as,

until, before, since.

(3) Conjunctions denoting cause or condition ; as,
because, if, unless, though, provided that.

(4) Conjunctions denoting end or purpose ; as,
as that, so that, lest.

(5) Conjunctions denoting comparison ; as,
then, as.

Exercise.

262. Point out the conjunctions and the parts they connect, whether words, phrases or clauses ; and give the class to which each conjunction belongs, or describe it as an adverb or preposition used for a conjunction, as the case may be.

1. *Beware of the silent dog and of still water.*

And is a conjunction ; coördinate, connecting the phrases *of the silent dog* and *of still water*, which are of equal rank, both being introduced by the preposition *of*.

2. *He was great in intellect, in courage, in affection and in integrity.*

And, with the commas standing for conjunctions, is a coördinate conjunction for the same reason as the foregoing.

3. The ship will sail to-morrow, if the storm subside.

4. Count not your chickens before they are hatched.

5. Some remedies are worse than the disease (is).

6. He neither attended a meeting, nor issued an address, nor expended a farthing. (*Neither* is a correlative introducing the expression connected by *nor*.)

7. Age shakes Athena's tower, but spares gray Marathon.

8. Suit the action to the word, the word to the action.

9. Both plants and animals are useful for food.

10. Idleness and ignorance are the parents of many vices.
11. I am as well as I have ever been.
12. Time is as precious as gold.
13. Deliberate with caution, but act with decision.
14. I shall go no farther than the corner.
15. Fame may give praise while it withholds esteem.
16. If you will examine the subject, you will see that I am right.
17. As he excels in virtue, so he rises in estimation.
18. Air is lighter than water.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the difference between prepositions and conjunctions; the office of conjunctions; words and sentences of equal rank; coördinate conjunctions, and subdivisions; clauses of different ranks; subordinate conjunctions, and subdivisions.

XXX. THE INTERJECTION—PROPERTIES.

263. The interjection, being a word of feeling rather than a sign of an idea, has no other connection with the sentence in which it occurs than to impart to other words the emotion which it expresses; as,

How short, alas! is life.

Here the word *alas!* imparts to the whole sentence the emotion which it expresses.

The emotions signified by interjections are those of sorrow, joy, surprise, contempt, pain, or an exclamation to arrest attention or impress silence; as,

Oh! hurrah! alas! ah! hollo! hush!

Some words are used as interjections because they imitate natural sounds; as,

He climbed to the top, when crash! went the fence, and bang! went the gun.

SYNTAX.

264. Having learned the description and the relations of the different parts of speech, we are prepared to examine the way in which words are combined so as to form sentences. This part of grammar is called **syntax**.

Syntax treats of the combination of words in the formation of sentences.

265. The literal meaning of syntax is **putting things in order**; and it includes:

- (1) The selection of words, and
 - (2) The proper arrangement of words to express the thought intended.
-

XXXI. GENERAL VIEW OF THE SENTENCE.

266. The statement of a thought, called a sentence, is the unit of speech (§22), and as such has certain external marks to signify its beginning and close.

(1) Every sentence must begin with a capital letter, as a sign that a statement of thought begins.

(2) Every sentence must close with a punctuation mark to signify that the statement of thought is ended. In most sentences this mark is a period. Interrogative sentences close with an interrogation point, and exclamatory sentences and some imperative sentences close with an exclamation point; but these points may also be used within the sentence.

267. Between the capital letter and the period three forms of sentence may be expressed:

268. The **simple sentence** with a single subject and a

single predicate. But simple sentences, each with a capital letter and a period, are often inconvenient. Hence we have :

269. The **compound sentence**, in which several simple sentences, joined by connecting words, commas, or semicolons, are included between one capital and one period.

270. The **complex sentence**, still more inclusive, in which, by relatives, adverbs or subordinate conjunctions, two or more clauses are joined between a capital and a period.

271. Another classification of sentences regards not their form, but their **meaning**.

We may use a sentence as a simple **declaration** ; as,

The moon shines softly.

We may use the same words with the emphatic form of the verb, giving them an **interrogative** meaning ; as,

Does the moon shine softly ?

Changing the form of the verb to the **imperative**, we may use the words as a command or entreaty, addressing the moon—

Shine softly, Moon.

By the help of an adverb of degree, an **exclamation** expressing sudden feeling may be uttered—

How softly the moon shines !

272. *A declarative sentence is one that declares a fact.*

273. *An interrogative sentence is one that asks a question.*

274. *An imperative sentence is one that commands or entreats.*

275. *An exclamatory sentence is one that expresses sudden feeling.*

In parsing it may be convenient to change the interrogative form into the declarative :

Does the moon shine softly ? = The moon shines (or does shine) softly.

Or the parts of the verb-phrase, separated for the purpose of the question, may be brought together :

Have the spring birds come ? = The spring birds have come.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain and define *syntax* and the two things it includes; the unit of speech; its external marks; the kinds of sentences included between such marks; what a simple sentence is; how simple sentences are joined, and the sentence thus formed; the more compact and inclusive sentence, and how joined; the distinguishing feature of these sentences.

Explain: another classification of sentences, and the distinction of it; by examples, the four kinds. Define each. Change interrogative into declarative sentence.

XXXII. SPECIAL VIEW OF THE SENTENCE.

276. A **sentence** is a collection of words so chosen and arranged as to express a thought (§20).

One object of grammar is to help us to construct sentences according to established usage; for in this way the best objects of speech are secured.

277. The first requirement of a sentence is a **right selection of words.**

I ha'n't got no book.

To say this is to make three mistakes in the choice of words. First, *ha'n't* is an expression which established usage forbids; it should be *haven't* or *have not*. Secondly, too many words are used. *Got* represents an idea not really intended. The book may merely have been

lost. Thirdly, *I have not no book*, means *I have a book*, which is the opposite of what is here meant.

I have no book.

This is a choice of words that precisely and correctly represents the intended ideas and thought.

278. The proper selection of words having been made, their **arrangement** is important.

I saw a man digging a well with a Roman nose.

This is a sentence containing the right words, but conveying a wrong meaning. We do not mean that the *well* has a Roman nose, but that the *man* has such a nose. The words that express this meaning are separated when they should be together—

I saw a man with a Roman nose digging a well.

279. A sentence is composed of words, because words are the signs of ideas (§17). A sentence may, in part, be composed of groups of closely related words, so connected as to have a force, or convey an idea, different from that which they have when used separately. Such a group is a phrase.

A **phrase** is a group of closely related words which have the force of a single part of speech, but are not a sentence (§61).

280. A sentence may contain a single subject (simple or compound) and a single predicate (simple or compound), and is then a simple sentence. A sentence containing two or more simple sentences joined by connecting words is compound or complex, and the sentences thus joined are called clauses.

A **clause** is a simple sentence used as a part of another sentence.

Any group of words not properly called either a sentence, a phrase, or a clause, may be termed an **expression**.

281. Two words may constitute a sentence, but these

words must be two particular and different parts of speech, and none others. For example,

Hunters blow.

This is a sentence. An idea or subject is combined with a declaration or predication declaring something of the subject. A noun has been selected for the subject, because the noun names the subject of thought; and a verb has been chosen for the predicate, because a verb is a word that declares, and the predicate must be a verb.

These two words are the main stems of a sentence. Any other words combined with them are branches, which, by adding ideas, extend, vary or explain the subject or predicate or both.

Add to the subject the word *The*, and the subject is extended by an adjective idea, pointing out particular hunters—

The hunters.

Another word may add an adjective idea of quality :

The merry hunters.

A noun may be added, extending the subject by a different name, or noun idea :

The merry hunters, men,

This shows by a name the sex of the *hunters*.

A phrase may be added, containing a noun which by means of a preposition is made to do the work of an adjective, and thus two adjective ideas are attached :

The merry hunters, men of powerful lungs.

This shows the kind of *men*.

Another adjective idea is added in a participial phrase,

describing an action without declaring it, and defining its effect :

The merry hunters, men of powerful lungs, losing the trail—

Thus the original subject *hunters* has grown by combining with it a noun, two adjectives and two phrases, as modifiers.

These modifying words may be arranged under the subject to the side in the order of the added ideas, those of equal rank, or relation, being placed on the same vertical line :

hunters—	—	blow
—The		
—merry		
—men		
—of lungs		
—powerful		
—losing trail		
—the		

The sentence is still simple, and its subject is simple, though greatly extended and varied by the added words.

The predicate, which is bare and indefinite, may be similarly expanded. First, add an idea named by the noun *horns*, to receive the action expressed by the verb, and to explain definitely what the hunters blow :

blow horns—

With *horns* combine *their*, an adjective idea of possession, a pronoun, to avoid repeating the noun *hunters*' :

blow their horns—

Then add an adverb idea to show the degree of the action :

blow their horns lustily—

Still another phrase with a noun may follow, modifying

the verb by showing the purpose of the action—an adverbial idea :

blow their horns lustily for the dogs.

The simple predicate has been extended by combining with it an object noun, an adjective, an adverb, and a phrase with the force of an adverb, as modifiers.

The words representing the added ideas may be arranged like those added to the subject :

hunters	blow
—The	—horns
—merry	—their
—men	—lustily
—of lungs	—for dogs
—powerful	—the
—losing trail	
—the	

And the whole sentence, regularly written, is :

The merry hunters, men of powerful lungs, losing the trail, blow their horns lustily for the dogs.

The example has shown how a sentence is constructed by adding modifiers to the subject and predicate.

282. We may take the sentence apart, separate the subject and predicate, and set out the modifiers of each. This process is **analyzing** a sentence.

Analyzing a sentence is dividing it into its parts for the purpose of describing the relations of the parts.

SYNOPSIS.—Define *sentence*. Explain: the relation of grammar to sentences; the first requirement of a correct sentence, with illustration; the second requirement, with illustration; what a sentence is composed of. Define *phrase*. Explain, briefly: a simple sentence; compound sentence; complex sentence; a clause; an expression; the

shortest sentence, and what kind of words it must contain. In the example, explain the extended subject and predicate by describing each added idea, word or phrase, as a modifier. Explain and define analyzing a sentence.

Exercise.

283. Set out and separate the subject and predicate, arranging under them the parts of the sentence that belong to each in the order of their rank or relation.

1. *Columbus was a man of great and inventive genius.*

Columbus		was
		man
		—a
		—of genius
		—great and inventive

Man is a predicate noun, in the nominative case, and belongs to the subject, while it completes the predicate. This double relation is indicated by placing it between subject and predicate. *Man* is modified by *a*, an adjective modifier, and by the phrase following it, of which *genius* is the leading part; and the adjectives *great* and *inventive*, of equal rank, and joined by the coördinate conjunction *and*, are adjective modifiers of *genius*.

In the next example, *energetic* and *irregular* are predicate adjectives, bearing a modifying relation to the subject and predicate.

2. The operations of his mind were energetic but irregular.
3. Livingstone, the explorer, was buried in Westminster Abbey.
4. The Tower of London, the most celebrated citadel of England, is of very ancient origin. (The appositive noun *citadel* is strictly of equal rank with the subject, but may be placed beneath the line to show that *tower* is the proper subject.)
5. Smooth runs the water.
6. Wild geese and swans are kindred of the duck.

7. His ambition was lofty and noble, inspiring him with high thoughts.
8. Across the ocean came a pilgrim bark, bearing the seeds of life and death.
9. Slowly and sadly they climb the distant mountains.

XXXIII. THE SUBJECT.

284. The **subject** of a sentence is primarily a noun (§25), because a noun names the thing spoken of and represents a complete idea.

A pronoun, standing for a noun, may be the subject, but it represents an incomplete idea, unless its noun is brought to view. *They blow*, raises the question, *Who blow?* If *hunters* is the known subject, the idea is complete.

285. The following words and groups of words may be the subject of a sentence, instead of a noun :

1. **An adjective** ; as,

The good are blessed.

2. **The infinitive** (which is a verb-noun) ; as,

To love is a duty.

3. **An infinitive phrase** ; as,

To love one's neighbor is a duty.

4. **The participle** (which is a verb-adjective) ; as,

Seeing is believing.

5. **A participial phrase** (in which the participle serves as a noun, and at the same time expresses action and is followed by an object) ; as,

Making an honest living is thrift.

The infinitive and the participle are as easily substituted, one for the other, as are the noun and adjective.

To love one's neighbor = Loving one's neighbor.

Seeing is believing = To see is to believe.

6. **A noun clause ; as,**

That we should love our neighbors is a duty.

The noun as subject is always in the **third person**, because it indicates the object spoken of. The personal pronoun as subject indicates the person by its form, and may be in either person.

286. By §146 it was learned that the **nominative case** is the case of the subject. The personal pronoun, which indicates its case by its **form**, proves the case of the noun as subject.

I am here, not Me am here.

They brought the news, not Them brought the news.

287. Nouns and pronouns, as subject, generally express **number** by their form.

288. Adjectives and participles have the same form for both numbers, and are singular or plural, when used for the subject-noun, according to the intention of the speaker.

The good is the true. The good are rewarded.

289. Phrases and clauses, as subjects, are used as single words, and have verbs in the singular or plural, according to their use as simple or compound subjects.

To drill the soldiers is the sergeant's duty ;

That men are liable to err is an accepted fact ;

Playing practical jokes and laughing at the victims are questionable practices.

290. In connection with impersonal verbs (§220), it was shown that the pronoun *it* is often used as the formal subject of a verb, helping the verb to make its declaration, while the real subject follows the verb. The adverb *there* is, in like manner, used as the unreal subject.

It occurs to me that it is time to go = That it is time to go occurs to me.

There is rain in prospect = Rain is in prospect.

291. *The subject of a sentence is a noun or pronoun; an adjective, participle, or infinitive used as a noun; or a phrase or clause.*

292. *A noun or pronoun as subject of a sentence is in the nominative case.*

293. *A phrase or clause used as the simple subject of a sentence takes a verb in the singular number.*

294. *The pronoun it and the adverb there may be used as formal subjects, the real subject of the sentence following the verb.*

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the primary subject of a sentence, and its primary substitute: the words, phrases, and clauses that may be used as subjects, giving examples of each; the substitution of infinitive for participle; and *vice versâ*; the person of noun and pronoun as subjects; case; number; the number of phrases and clauses, and of their verbs; the peculiar use of *it* and *there* as subjects.

Exercise.

295. Designate the kinds of sentences as to meaning and form. Point out the subjects and predicates; explain the subjects and parse them.

1. *King James used to call for his old shoes ; they were the easiest.*

This sentence is declarative, because — ; compound, because — ; the two clauses are connected by a semicolon instead of by a coördinate conjunction. Of the first clause, *King James* is the subject, *used* is the predicate. Of the second clause, *they* is subject, *were* is incomplete predicate. *King James* is a noun ; proper ; masculine ; third person, singular ; nominative case, subject of the verb *used*. *They* is a personal pronoun, standing for the noun *shoes* ; neuter gender, third person, plural, because its noun is so ; nominative case, subject of the verb *were*.

2. *When the cat is away, the mice will play.*

This is a complex sentence ; independent clause, *the mice will play* ; dependent clause, *When the cat is away*, connected by the conjunctive adverb *when*.

3. The brave yield to no danger.
4. To conceal is one thing, to be silent (is) another (thing).
5. To frighten a bird is not the way to catch it.
6. Swimming and rowing strengthen the muscles.
7. The doing of right alone teaches the value of right.
8. To do right is a principle of sound morality.
9. Keep thy shop, and thy shop will keep thee.
10. "A new broom sweeps clean" and "A watched pot never boils" are old proverbs.
11. There is no smoke without some fire.

XXXIV. THE PREDICATE.

296. The predicate must always be a verb, because no other word declares, or predicates.

For this reason the infinitive and participle should not, strictly

speaking, be called verbs. They express action or being, but declare nothing, and are not predicates.

297. Since the verb declares something of the subject, its relation to the subject is close. Its declaration must be adapted to the idea expressed in the subject.

1. The verb must conform, as far as it can, to the subject idea of **person** ; as,

I learns. I learn. He learns.

The first example is at once seen to be incorrect, while the other two are correct. This is an adaptation of the verb to the person of the subject.

The verb does not, in all its parts, conform to the person of the subject, but in some parts it does, and it must be used accordingly.

2. The verb agrees with the idea of **number** expressed in the subject, and in some parts adapts its form to express number ; as,

He is here. They are here.

298. When a collective noun as subject is regarded as one idea, the verb is in the singular number. But when the idea of many is prominent, the noun is regarded as plural, and the verb is in the same number ; as,

The herd is collected. The herd are scattered.
The committee was appointed.
The crowd is pushed aside.

299. The compound subject requires a verb in the plural when the conjunction that unites the single members joins them as one idea ; as,

Truth and virtue conquer.

But when the conjunction is alternative or adversative

(§§258, 259), and separates the ideas while it joins the words, the verb is in the singular ; as,

Not position but worth makes the man.
Neither fortune nor place makes the man.
Either truth or virtue conquers envy.

300. When the compound subject contains nouns or pronouns of different persons, the verb must agree in person with that member of the compound which is nearest to it ; as,

Neither he nor I have heard it.
Neither you nor he has heard it.

301. When the pronoun *it* is a formal subject referring to the real subject following the verb, the verb agrees with *it* in number, whatever may be the number of the real subject ; as,

It is I. It is they.

302. When *there* is the formal subject, the verb agrees in number with the real subject ; as,

There comes a man. There come two men.

303. Some verbs (§52) are incomplete as predicates except with a predicate noun, pronoun or adjective.

304. Besides the verb *to be*, there are several verbs that take after them predicate nouns or adjectives ; as, *became*, *grows*, *remains*, *seems*, *sounds*, *smells*.

He became governor.
His head grows gray.
He remains silent.
She seems ill.
The bell sounds loud.
The rose smells sweet.

The predicate word after such verbs describes the subject, and, if a noun or pronoun, is in the nominative case.

305. Some verbs may predicate without the addition of any other word. These are intransitive verbs (§170), and have no passive voice ; as,

The house stands, meaning *The house does not fall.*

306. Some verbs declare indefinitely, except with the addition of a noun, phrase, or clause to receive the action expressed by the verb. These are transitive verbs (§169), and have a passive voice ; as,

In Iowa they raise.

They propose.

These sentences are incomplete, but may be made complete by adding an object ; as,

In Iowa they raise corn.

They propose going to the seaside.

307. The noun or pronoun used as the object of a transitive verb or of a preposition is in the objective case (§146).

308. A verb in the passive voice takes for its subject what would be its object if it were in the active voice ; as,

In Iowa corn is raised.

Going to the seaside is proposed (by them).

309. Some verbs are used both transitively and intransitively ; as,

He speaks = He is not silent.

He speaks good English.

Some intransitive verbs take after them an object of kindred meaning—

I ran a race.

He lived a long life.

310. *The predicate is always a verb.*

311. *A verb must agree with its subject in person and number.*

312. *A transitive verb requires a noun or pronoun in the objective case to define its declaration; and this object becomes subject of the same verb when in the passive voice.*

313. *Some intransitive verbs are followed by a predicate noun or pronoun in the nominative case, or an adjective, to complete their declaration.*

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the predicate; the infinitive and participle in relation to the predicate; to what the predicate must be adapted; what decides the person and number of the verb. Give the rule. Explain: the verb as predicate of a collective noun; of compound subject, three cases; as predicate with *it* and *there*; what some verbs require to declare completely; what kind of verbs declare definitely alone; what kind do not so declare, and what they need to follow them; what their subject is when they are in the passive voice; examples of verbs which predicate both transitively and intransitively; some intransitive verbs that take an object.

Exercise.

314. Parse the verbs, explaining their declarations, whether complete in themselves, completed by predicate noun, etc., or defined by objects. Change active into passive voice and adapt the subjects accordingly, and *vice versâ*, where such changes are practicable.

1. I am master of my habits; they are my servants.
2. The committee was appointed, but they disagreed in opinion.
3. Affability and mildness are of daily use: they are the bread of mankind.
4. Industry, not good luck, insures success.
5. Either he or you get the prize.

6. Neither you nor he gets the prize.
 7. It is the robbers we are after.
 8. There will come seasons of decline.
 9. A poet is born, not made.
 10. The air seems quiet, and the orange-blossoms smell sweet.
 11. He distinguished his actions by sound judgment.
 12. His conduct was characterized by the grandeur of his views.
 13. He advised that we should go up the Rhine.
 14. We had proposed descending the Rhine, and intended to remain at Cologne.
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XXXV. MODIFIERS.

315. The main supports of a sentence are the noun and the verb—subject and predicate. All other words contained in a sentence help these two main parts to express more than they express alone.

316. Modifiers extend the meaning of the subject or predicate by adding other ideas.

Modifiers consist of nouns or pronouns added separately, or in phrases joined by connecting words ; of verbs as parts of clauses ; of adjectives and adverbs introducing qualifying ideas.

With every addition to the subject or predicate of a word, phrase, or clause, the capital letter beginning the sentence will move further to the left, and the period will move further to the right.

It is in this way that the shortest sentence,

Hunters | blow,

is explained, described or otherwise expanded by adding new ideas, until it becomes—

The merry hunters, men of powerful lungs, losing the trail, blow their horns lustily for the dogs.

317. Here all words that add ideas to the subject are

helpers or modifiers, and with the subject constitute the **modified subject**; while all words that add ideas to the predicate are its modifiers, and with it form the **modified predicate**.

A modifier may modify the essential parts directly or indirectly, by modifying another modifier.

318. The added words or groups of words in every case modify by expressing one of three kinds of ideas—a **noun idea**, an **adjective idea**, an **adverb idea**.

Connecting words—prepositions, conjunctions, relative pronouns, and some adverbs—serve to join these added modifiers.

Prepositions introduce, and become parts of phrases which are modifiers. Conjunctions join words and clauses, and sometimes become parts of phrases.

319. The modifier contains a **noun idea** when it is a noun or group of words added to explain, not by expressing a quality, but by giving a **name** or title of something. The subject is thus explained by adding a different name, an appositive, or by adding a clause as an explicit name; or as a predicate noun by asserting the name of the subject. The predicate is defined by a noun idea naming the object that receives the action—

Hunters, men (not women or boys).

Time is money (explaining time by asserting of it a different name).

The fact that men are mortal (giving an explicit title to the fact).

Hunters blow (their) *horns* (naming the object of the action).

320. The modifier contains an **adjective idea** when it adds a **qualifying** or **limiting** idea to define the meaning of a noun. The adjective modifier may be :

1. A noun adding the idea of possession ; as,
bird's nest.
2. An adjective ; as,
merry hunters.
3. A phrase making an adjective of a noun ; as,
men of powerful lungs.
4. A participle phrase ; as,
hunters losing the trail.
5. An adjective pronoun, adding an idea of ownership ; as,
their horns.
6. An adjective clause ; as,
men who travel.

321. The modifier contains an **adverb idea** when it adds an idea of **place, time, manner, condition, purpose, end, etc.**, to the action or being expressed by the verb ; as,

blow lustily.

Lustily is an adverb expressing the manner of the action.

for the dogs.

This is a prepositional phrase explaining the direction or purpose of the action. Such a phrase, like an adverb, may modify an adjective ; as,

good for thirty days.

It may also modify an adverb ; as,

He acted bravely for a boy.

322. *The essential parts of a sentence are the subject and the predicate.*

323. *The modifiers in a sentence are the words or groups of words added to the subject or predicate, or both, to extend or vary their meaning.*

324. *A modifier adds to the essential or other parts of a sentence either a noun idea, an adjective idea, or an adverb idea.*

325. *The modified subject includes the subject and its modifiers.*

326. *The modified predicate includes the predicate and its modifiers.*

327. *Connecting words join words, phrases, and clauses, and may be parts of the modifiers which they connect.*

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the essential parts of a sentence; what is meant by modifiers; what expands *Hunters blow* into a long sentence; modified subject; modified predicate; the three kinds of ideas added by modifiers; connecting words and their office; difference between a noun idea and an adjective idea; the adverb idea; give examples of each. Define essential parts; modifiers, etc.

Exercise.

328. Point out the subject and predicate and their modifiers, showing the idea represented by each modifier, and designate the modified subject and modified predicate.

1. *Strong men, and women of sensitive natures alike yielded their wills to the power of his eloquence.*

The subject is *men and women*; compound, the two members connected by the conjunction *and*. The predicate is *yielded*.

The modifiers of the subject are *strong*, adding an adjective idea of quality to *men*, and the phrase *of sensitive natures*, adding an adjective idea of quality to *women*. The phrase is introduced and connected by the preposition *of*, giving the noun *natures* the force of an adjective;

natures is modified by *sensitive*, adding an adjective idea. The modified subject is *Strong men, and women of sensitive natures*.

The predicate modifiers are *alike*, adding to the verb the adverb idea of measure ; *wills*, adding a noun idea to the verb to define its declaration by denoting the object which receives the action expressed by it. *Their* adds an adjective idea of possession to *wills*. The phrase *to the power of*, etc., adds an adverb idea of manner or result to the action expressed by the verb. The phrase is introduced by the preposition *to*, connecting the noun *power* with the verb, with the force of an adverb. *Power* itself is modified by *the*, an adjective idea of definition, and by the phrase *of his eloquence*, an adjective idea equivalent to *eloquent*. *Eloquence* is modified by the adjective idea of ownership in *his*. The modified predicate is *alike yielded their wills to the power of his eloquence*.

2. Men who have little business are great talkers. (*Who have little business* is an adjective clause adding to *men* an adjective idea.)
3. If wishes were true, farmers would be kings. (The clause, *If wishes*, etc., is adverbial, adding an adverb idea to *would be*.)
4. He ate the ripe apple just pulled from the bough.
5. Many go out for wool and come back shorn.
6. Birds of a feather flock together.
7. Beauty is the mark of God set upon virtue.
8. All is not gold that glitters.
9. When you doubt, do not act.
10. Good deeds shine as the stars (shine) in heaven.
11. They looked around on every side, and hope gave way before the scene of desolation.
12. The long grass was bowed to the earth.
13. In a moment all was hushed again.
14. Conscience is a great ledger book in which all our offences are written and registered.
15. Our greatest glory is not in never falling, but in rising every time we fall.

XXXVI. NOUN-MODIFIERS.

329. We come now to examine the words, phrases and clauses that represent modifying ideas.

Of the different kinds of modifiers, those that add a noun-idea are **noun-modifiers**.

330. A noun or pronoun added to a noun or pronoun to explain it, by adding another name, is said to be in **apposition** with the word to which it is so added.

Milton the poet lived in England.

In this sentence the noun *poet* explains the noun *Milton* by adding to this proper name a different kind of name which explains its meaning. A pronoun may be used in the same way ; as,

Milton himself was blind.

This noun in apposition is so called because it is placed alongside of another noun. It signifies the same thing as the noun which it explains, and is always in the same case.

Milton the poet was a friend of Marvell the poet.

This shows the appositive noun in the nominative, agreeing with the subject, and again in the objective, agreeing with *Marvell*, which is in the objective case after a preposition. Such a noun is an **appositive noun-modifier**, and adds a noun idea, not an adjective idea.

331. Almost like the appositive noun is the **predicate noun**, which, with the help of a verb, asserts, rather than mentions, an additional noun idea of the subject of thought.

Victoria, the queen, etc.

This shows a use of the noun *queen* resembling that in the sentence,

Victoria is queen.

In the latter, *queen* is **asserted** of the subject, and is a **predicate noun-modifier**, modifying both the subject by explaining it, and the predicate by completing it.

332. A noun-added to a transitive verb, to name the direct object of the action expressed by the verb, and thus to define what the verb declares, is in the objective case, and is an **objective noun-modifier**.

Virtue conquers.

This expresses an indefinite declaration.

Virtue conquers envy.

This expresses a definite declaration, by naming a noun idea to receive the action expressed by the verb. The convenient name of this modifier is **objective modifier**. To distinguish it from another occasional modifier of the predicate, it may be called the **direct objective modifier**. Some intransitive verbs are followed by an object of kindred meaning, which is an objective noun-modifier.

He dreamed a dream.

He ran a race.

He slept a sound sleep.

333. Some verbs, such as *give, pay, ask*, take two objects; one being the direct object, already explained, and the other denoting the object *to* or *for which*, and sometimes *of which*, the action of the verb is asserted. This second object is the indirect object. This objective modifier may be called the **indirect objective modifier**.

I gave him a coat = I gave a coat to him.

I paid him money. I asked him a favor.

In these examples, *him* is the indirect object, *to*, *for* or *of whom* the direct object is given, paid or asked.

334. Some transitive verbs, signifying *to make*, *to choose*, *to call*, etc., take, besides the direct object, an additional objective noun with a different relation from that of the indirect object.

I call him coward.

They made him chairman.

In these sentences the verb asserts the second objects, *coward* and *chairman*, of the direct object *him*, precisely as the predicate noun is asserted of the subject. The direct object does not complete the predication of these verbs in these cases, for the question arises, “*What do you call him?*” “*What did you make him?*” The addition of another name completes the predicate. This corresponds to the predicate noun-modifier of the subject, and is called the **objective predicate modifier**.

335. Verbs that take both the direct and indirect objects have, when changed into the passive form, the direct object as subject, while the indirect object remains after the verb ; as,

He taught me grammar ; Grammar was taught (to) me (by) him.

Sometimes the indirect object is made the subject, and the direct object remains after the verb ; as,

I was taught grammar (by him).

336. When verbs signifying *to make*, *to choose*, etc., change into the passive form, the direct object becomes the subject,

and the objective predicate becomes a predicate noun in the nominative.

They made him chairman = He was made chairman.

They elected Washington president = Washington was elected (by them) president.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: a noun-modifier; the appositive modifier, and why so called; the predicate noun-modifier, and its twofold office; the objective modifier and its distinguishing name; the objective modifier of some intransitive verbs; two objects of the same verb, how related and what called; the objective predicate modifier, and what verbs take it; the subjects and objects of the two kinds of verbs in the passive form.

XXXVII. NOUN SUBSTITUTES.

337. The several nouns used as noun-modifiers—the appositive, the predicate noun, the objective noun, and the objective predicate noun—may have groups of words as **substitutes**.

338. The **appositive noun** may have as a substitute :

1. **The infinitive (verb-noun) or infinitive phrase** ; as,

One object of life, to prosper, is always near.

Another duty, to benefit others, should be kept in sight.

2. **A participle or participial phrase** ; as,

One duty, helping others, should not be forgotten.

3. **A noun clause.** The noun clause is a dependent clause which is an extended name or title of a subject or object ; as,

Whether it will rain, is uncertain.

What I am to do, I know not.

It may also have a noun clause used as an appositive ; as,

The principle, that every man must help himself, is primary.

339. The predicate noun may have as a substitute :

1. The infinitive or participle ; as,

Our duty is to labor and to wait ; Our pleasure is striving to do good.

2. A noun clause ; as,

The question is, whether we shall be slaves or free.

340. The objective noun may have as a substitute :

1. The infinitive or participle ; as,

*He proposes to ride.
He intends riding.*

Sometimes it has the infinitive as direct object when the indirect object is expressed ; as,

We asked him to go ; I told him to go.

2. The infinitive after the passive form ; as,

He was asked to go.

3. A noun clause ; as,

I know what the fact is.

The Constitution provides that every man shall enjoy liberty.

341. The objective predicate noun may have as a substitute :

1. The infinitive or participle ; as,

*They elected him to be president.
They set the machine running.*

2. The infinitive with the sign *to* omitted ; as,

I made her cry (to cry).

342. The noun used as the principal part of some modifiers loses its distinguishing feature as a noun, and these modifiers add other ideas than the noun idea.

1. The noun in the nominative case is sometimes used neither as subject, predicate noun, nor in apposition, but is cut apart from the construction of the sentence ; and is hence called the **noun absolute** (§148) ; as,

He came out of the affray, his face covered with blood.

The noun so used has an adjective, or a phrase with the force of an adjective, connected with it. As a modifier, the noun absolute adds an **adverbial idea**.

2. The possessive case of a noun is added to another noun, or to a pronoun, meaning a different thing, to qualify it by denoting possession, thus adding a quality idea rather than a noun idea. This possessive modifier, though a noun or pronoun, adds an **adjective idea**.
3. The noun or pronoun as object of a preposition is always in the objective case. The preposition with a noun forms a phrase which, as modifier, adds either an **adjective idea** or an **adverb idea**.

343. *A noun-modifier is a noun, pronoun, or words used for them, which adds to part of a sentence a noun idea.*

344. *An appositive noun-modifier is a noun, or words used for a noun, added to a noun or pronoun meaning the same thing, explaining the word modified by giving to that which it represents a different name ; as, Byron the poet died in Greece.*

345. *A predicate noun-modifier is a noun, or words used for a noun, which with the help of a verb modifies*

the subject of thought by asserting of it a different name, and modifies the predicate by completing it; as, Art is power.

346. *An objective modifier is the direct object of a verb; or a noun, or words used for a noun, added to a transitive verb to define its declaration by denoting the object which receives the action expressed by it; as, Love conquers everything.*

347. *Some intransitive verbs are modified by an objective partaking of the meaning of the verb; as, He dreamed a dream.*

348. *The indirect objective modifier is a noun added to some transitive verbs signifying to give, to pay, to ask, etc., as a second object, to, for, or of whom the direct object is given, paid or asked; as, He paid me a check.*

349. *An objective predicate modifier is a noun added to the direct object of some transitive verbs, to modify this object by giving it another name, and to complete the declaration of the verb; as, They made him governor.*

350. *Verbs taking an indirect object may use this object for the subject, and the direct object for the object of their passive forms; as, He gave me a check, becomes, I was given a check by him; or the direct object may be the subject in the passive, and the indirect object remain after the verb; as, A check was given to me (by him).*

351. *The objective predicate becomes a predicate noun when the verb of which it is an objective assumes the passive form; as, They made him governor, becomes, He was made governor by them.*

352. *Most nouns as modifiers may take as substitutes the infinitive, the participle, and the noun clause.*

353. *The noun absolute is a noun with an adjective or its equivalent adding an adverb idea to the sentence, but separated from its construction ; as, He stood, cap in hand.*

354. *A noun or pronoun as object of a preposition is always in the objective case ; as, I refer to him.*

355. *A noun in the possessive case or in a prepositional phrase is not a noun modifier.*

SYNOPSIS.—Explain, with examples, the substitutes for an appositive noun, as modifier ; the substitutes for the predicate noun ; of the objective ; of the objective predicate noun ; the noun losing its value as a noun-modifier ; the noun absolute ; the possessive modifier ; the noun with a preposition.

Exercise.

356. Point out the subject, predicate, noun-modifiers and describe them ; also the modified subject and predicate.

1. *We Americans love liberty.*

We is subject, *love* is predicate. The subject is modified by *Americans*, a noun in apposition with *we*, and in the nominative case ; a noun modifier, because it explains the subject *we* by adding an explanatory name, or noun-idea. The modified subject is *We Americans*. The predicate is modified by *liberty*, a noun in the objective case ; objective noun-modifier, because it names the object which receives the action expressed by the verb, and defines its declaration. The modified predicate is *love liberty*.

2. *The principle that men have a right to liberty is included in the Constitution.*

The subject is modified by the noun clause *that men have*, etc., in apposition with *principle* ; appositive noun-

modifier, because it explains *principle* by giving it an extended name or title—a noun-idea.

3. We should love liberty, the natural right of every man.
 4. Our object, to live soberly and peaceably, must be kept in view.
 5. The company gave the men higher wages.
 6. They called Washington the father of his country.
 7. Whip me such honest knaves.
 8. Travel makes all men countrymen.
 9. Our rights—to live peaceably, to acquire property, to be happy—are offset by our duties—injuring none, respecting the interests of others, and helping them to be happy.
 10. The manager ordered the men to work.
 11. The meeting elected Mr. Jones chairman.
 12. Lincoln was nominated to be president.
 13. My story made them laugh.
 14. By it she was made to cry.
 15. The happy are the good.
 16. We make a rule of thrift, that every man shall spend less than he earns.
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XXXVIII. ADJECTIVE MODIFIERS AND SUBSTITUTES.

357. The adjective idea is an idea of description or definition, with reference to the meaning of a noun. Any word or group of words adding to the meaning of a noun or pronoun an adjective idea is an **adjective modifier**.

358. Adjective modifiers include :

1. The **adjective** itself, directly qualifying a noun, expressing a general attribute belonging to a class, and usually placed before the noun, called an **attributive adjective modifier**, as,

The little boy dispatched his errand.

2. The **adjective** expressing a particular quality, merely

explanatory, and set off by a comma, is called an **appositive adjective modifier**, from its resemblance to the construction of the noun in apposition ; as,

The little boy, nimble and bright, dispatched his errand.

3. The **adjective** indirectly qualifying a subject noun through a verb, and completing the predication of the verb, is called a **predicate adjective modifier** ; as,

The boy is nimble and bright.

4. The **predicate adjective** used with a verb to assert a quality of the object noun, and completing the predication of the verb, is called an **objective predicate adjective modifier** ; as,

He made the stick straight. He made the case plain.

5. The **participle** used as an **attributive adjective** ; as,

a charming landscape ; a beaten foe.

6. The **participle** used as an **appositive adjective** ; as,

a lady, cultured and accomplished.

7. The **participle** as a **predicate adjective** ; as,

The way is opening. The foe is beaten.

8. The **progressive form of the verb** ; as,

The locomotive was puffing.

9. The **participle** as **objective predicate adjective** ; as,

They had the offender punished.

I saw him crossing the street.

10. The **participial phrase**, expressing the properties of the participle both as adjective and verb, used often as

an appositive, placed either after or before the modified noun ; as,

He, thinking of something, returned.

Thinking of something, he returned.

Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again.

11. The **participle** in the noun-absolute construction, without any relation of case, or connective to join it, assisting the noun to express an **adverb idea** ; as,

Their horses saddled, they rode on.

The matter being settled, the meeting was adjourned.

12. **Nouns** used as **descriptive** or **attributive adjectives** ; as,

stone fence ; brick house.

13. The **possessive** case of a **noun**, adding to another noun, meaning a different thing, the **adjective idea of possession** ; as,

bird's eggs ; baker's bread ;

showing the kind of eggs and whose bread.

14. The **possessive pronouns** *my, his, her*—*my purse, his hat, her book* ; **adjective ideas** of possession, *mine, hers, ours, yours, theirs*, used when the limited noun is omitted—*his book and mine* (my book) ; sometimes with the preposition *of* ; as,

this heart of mine, that friend of his.

15. The **relative clause** connected by a relative pronoun, adding an **adjective idea** to the meaning of the noun or pronoun which it modifies. This is a dependent clause of a complex sentence.

He who distinguishes well, learns well.

The relative clause modifies *he* by describing it.

Men who are wise (wise men) *are provident.*

16. The **adjective clause** connected by a conjunctive adverb. This must be distinguished from the adverb clause (see next Chapter) by its meaning. These connectives are equivalent to relative pronouns, because they connect with the noun, not the verb. They are *where*, *whence*, *when*, *why*; as,

The country whence (from which) he came.

The time when (at which) he arrived.

The reason why (for which) he came.

17. A **preposition with a noun**, enabling the noun connected by it to perform the office of an adjective; as,

A box of wood = A wooden box.

Cloth of gold = Golden cloth.

18. The **prepositional phrase** adding an adjective idea to a noun, or used as a **predicate adjective**; as,

The house on the river-bank = The river-bank house.

The house is on the river-bank.

19. An adverb used as an attributive, appositive or predicate adjective; as,

The sun is up.

The above remarks were made confidentially.

The house without is more attractive than the house within.

359. *An adjective modifier is an adjective or other part of speech, or a group of words, used to add an adjective idea to the meaning of a noun or pronoun.*

360. *An attributive adjective modifier is one that qualifies a noun directly, expressing a quality of a class, and is usually placed before the qualified noun; as, The bright, shining sun appears.*

361. *An appositive adjective modifier is one not closely bound to the qualified word, expressing a particular quality, and set off by commas ; as, The sun, bright and shining, appears.*

362. *A predicate adjective modifier is an adjective or its equivalent used with a verb to assert a quality of the subject-noun, and to complete the declaration of the predicate ; as, The sun appears bright and shining.*

363. *An objective predicate adjective modifier is an adjective or its equivalent used with a verb to assert a quality of the object-noun, and to complete the declaration of the predicate ; as, He made the case plain.*

364. *The participle is used in all the relations of the adjective modifiers.*

365. *Adjective modifiers include, besides adjectives, nouns and pronouns in the possessive case ; the relative dependent clause ; the adjective clause connected by a conjunctive adverb ; prepositional phrases qualifying nouns and pronouns ; and adverbs used as adjectives.*

366. *A noun or pronoun in the possessive case means a different thing from the noun denoting the thing possessed, and modifies as an adjective, adding the idea of possession.*

SYNOPSIS.—Explain : an adjective idea ; an adjective modifier ; the following adjective modifiers, with examples—attributive adjective ; appositive adjective ; predicate adjective ; objective predicate adjective ; participle as attributive, appositive and predicate ; participial phrase ; with noun absolute ; nouns as adjectives ; the possessive case ; possessive pronouns ; relative clause as adjective ; adjective clause connected by a conjunctive adverb ; preposition with a noun ; prepositional phrase ; adverb as adjective modifier.

Exercise.

367. Point out the subject and predicate and their modifiers, explaining those learned in the foregoing lesson. Example 12 contains an adverb as object of a preposition.

1. *A young man, unsteady, and trifling with his opportunities, renders his life useless and unsatisfactory.*

Man is subject, *renders* predicate. The subject is modified by *a* and *young*, adjective modifiers, because adding adjective ideas; *young* is attributive, because adding a class quality directly. The subject is further modified by *unsteady*, and the participial phrase commencing with *trifling*, adjective modifiers, because —; appositive, because not closely bound and signifying particular qualities, set off by commas. *With his opportunities* is an adverbial qualifier of *trifling*. The modified subject is, *A young man, unsteady, and trifling with his opportunities.*

The predicate is modified by *life*; objective noun modifier, because naming the direct object of the action expressed by the verb. *Life* is modified by the possessive *his*, adjective modifier, adding idea of possession; also by *useless* and *unsatisfactory*, adjective modifiers, because —; objective predicate modifiers, because with the verb they assert qualities of the object *life*, and complete the predicate. The modified predicate is, *renders his life useless and unsatisfactory.*

2. A rolling stone gathers no moss.
3. The charming landscape, green, diversified, and beautiful, attracted our eyes.
4. Comparisons are odious.
5. Peter's wife's mother lay sick of a fever.
6. This heart of mine you cannot have.
7. Neither my book nor hers contains the passage.

8. Being admonished, let us follow better things.
9. An upright man makes his influence felt.
10. He who does a good deed is instantly ennobled.
11. Absence makes the heart grow fonder.
12. A hole in the wall admits a sunbeam from without.
13. The house above is rented.
14. How dull it is to pause, to make an end,
To rust unburnished, not to shine in use !
As though to breathe were life. . . .

XXXIX. ADVERB MODIFIERS AND SUBSTITUTES.

368. An **adverbial modifier** may be distinguished from an adjective modifier by the parts of speech which it modifies. Adjectives add ideas to the meaning of nouns and pronouns; adverbs add ideas to the meaning of verbs, chiefly, but also to adjectives and adverbs. Words and groups of words may pass from one class of modifiers to another according to their use in particular sentences, and according to the parts of speech to which they are added.

Home is an objective noun-modifier when we say, *We love home*, but an adverbial modifier when we say, *We went home*. *Up* is a preposition when followed by a noun as its object—*up hill*—but an adverb when, without an object, it qualifies a verb—*I came up*.

369. A **prepositional phrase** is an adjective modifier when added to a noun, but an adverb modifier when added to a verb, adjective or adverb.

A hat for a boy hangs on the nail.

This uses the prepositional phrase *for a boy* as an adjective modifier of a noun.

A hat was designed for a boy.

A hat suitable for a boy.

A hat was made purposely for a boy.

These show the same phrase as an adverbial modifier of a verb, an adjective and an adverb, respectively.

370. We have seen that the adjective (as predicate adjective) sometimes modifies a verb ; we shall also see that the adverb sometimes modifies a noun.

The adverb adds an idea of **time, place, manner, degree, measure,** etc. The adverb modifier may go further, and add an idea of **direction, purpose, object, end, cause, consequence.**

They blow their horns for the dogs.

In this sentence the prepositional phrase may denote either the **direction** or the **purpose** of the action expressed by the verb.

They came to inspect the premises.

This contains an infinitive phrase as adverb modifier, indicating the **purpose** of the action.

371. Adverbial modifiers add adverb ideas, and include :

1. The **adverb** as qualifier of a verb, adjective or adverb ; as,

A truly sensible man will act very wisely.

2. An **adverb** qualifying a preposition ; as,

His house is far over the mountain.

3. A **noun** used as an adverb to qualify a verb, adjective or adverb ; as,

They went home = where they went.

The street measures forty feet wide = how wide.

It is worth ten cents = how much it is worth.

They stayed all day long (day qualifying the adverb long).

4. The **infinitive** and its phrase with an intransitive verb ; as,

He rejoiced to be present.

5. The **infinitive** and its phrase used with an adjective ; as,
He is anxious to succeed.
6. The **infinitive** and its phrase used with a noun ; as,
a platform to stand on (denoting the object of the platform).
a hope to succeed (denoting the object of the hope).
7. The **participle** and its phrase with an intransitive verb ; as,
He came riding a horse = how he came.
This may be regarded as a predicate adjective.
8. The **noun clause**, after an intransitive verb ; as,
He insisted that I should join him.
9. The **noun clause** with an adjective ; as,
I am afraid that I may fail.
10. The **noun clause** with a noun ; as,
the hope that I shall succeed.
11. The **dependent clause**, called an adverb clause, connected by a conjunctive adverb or a subordinate conjunction ; as,
He lives where it seldom rains.
He went when the train arrived.
He will return if it seems best.
He spoke loud that we might hear.
He ran swiftly that he might catch the train.

372. *An adverb modifier modifies a verb, adjective or adverb, sometimes a noun, adding an idea of time, place, manner, degree, measure, purpose, object, end, direction, cause, result, etc.*

373. *Adverbial modifiers include, besides adverbs, nouns used as adverbs to denote place, distance or measure; prepositions and prepositional phrases used as adverbs; the infinitive and its phrases; the noun clause and the dependent clause, when these phrases and clauses are added to verbs, adjectives and adverbs.*

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the distinction between an adjective modifier and an adverb modifier; how words pass from one class of modifiers to another; the different ideas added by adverbial modifiers; the different adverbial modifiers with examples—the adverb itself; noun used as adverb; infinitive and phrase; the participle and phrase; the noun clause; the adverb dependent clause.

Exercise.

374. Point out and explain the adverbial modifiers, and the modifiers contained in phrases and clauses.

1. *My mother has seen me grow up.*

The subject is *mother*, the predicate is *has seen*. The subject is modified by *my*, an adjective modifier, because —. The modified subject is *My mother*.

The predicate is modified by *me* and *grow up*. *Me* is an objective noun modifier of *has seen*, because —; *grow up* is an infinitive phrase with *to* omitted; adjective modifier, equivalent to *growing up*; predicate adjective modifier of the object *me*, and completing the declaration of the verb *has seen*. *Up* is an adverbial modifier of *grow*, adding an idea of measure. The modified predicate is, *has seen me grow up*.

2. He resides far to the east.
3. I recall the morning walks which I took last year.
4. To reign is worth ambition.
5. Being anxious to succeed, and desirous to depart, he resolved to go ten days hence.

6. An invitation to speak was given.
7. The young man came running home.
8. He was grieved that I should refuse him.
9. I am anxious lest I shall fail.
10. I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows.
11. Strike, while the iron is hot.

XL. MODIFIERS DISTINGUISHED.

375. The classification of modifiers by the **ideas** they represent has given us three kinds, including **noun, adjective and adverb ideas**.

In general, noun modifiers are added to nouns and verbs ; adjective modifiers to nouns and pronouns ; and adverb modifiers to verbs, adjectives and adverbs.

376. The classification of modifiers by their **form** gives us three kinds—**single words, phrases and clauses** ; the last two having the force of single parts of speech.

Phrases are distinguished as groups of words closely related, but with no assertion, while clauses have subjects and predicates of their own.

377. The modifiers of a sentence are first to be regarded as wholes, though they may be complex modifying ideas. A phrase, as modifier, embraces all the subordinate phrases or words that may modify its leading word.

He rode on a black horse with a white foot.

Here the modifier of *rode* is the whole phrase following ; *horse*, which is the leading word, being modified by *a, black* and *with a white foot*.

The principal modifier and its subordinate adjuncts may be modifiers of different kinds.

The house on the bank of the river with a swift current is their destination.

Here the subject *house* is modified by the whole complex phrase introduced by *on* and including *current*. It is an adjective modifier, as are also the subordinate modifiers, *of the river* and *with a swift current*.

The same phrase may be thrown into the modified predicate, where it becomes a predicate adjective modifier, the subordinate parts remaining adjective modifiers.

Their destination is the house on the bank of the river with a swift current.

Nearly the same phrase added to an intransitive verb as predicate changes its character as a modifier.

They went to the house on the bank of the river with a swift current.

Here the whole phrase adds an adverbial idea to the predicate, while the subordinate modifiers are adjective modifiers.

He intended riding a black horse with a white foot.

In this sentence the phrase is participial, because it is introduced by a participle—*riding*. It is an objective noun modifier of a transitive verb, because it names the object of the action. The whole complex phrase is required to name the object, because the intention was not simply to ride a *horse*, but a *black horse*, *with a white foot*.

He came riding a black horse with a white foot.

Here the phrase is added to an intransitive verb, answering the question, "*In what manner did he come?*" and is an adverbial modifier, while its subordinate parts are adjective modifiers.

He, riding a black horse, etc., entered the village.

Here the phrase is an appositive adjective modifier of the subject.

I saw him riding a black horse, etc.

This shows the same phrase as objective predicate adjective modifier.

378. Thus it is evident that the words, phrases and clauses modifying the subject are generally either noun or adjective modifiers ; and those modifying the predicate are either noun, adjective or adverb modifiers.

379. A modifier is distinguished by its force, and not by the particular part of speech which it may be.

1. A noun in the possessive case is an **adjective modifier**, because it has the force of an adjective ; as,

king's command = royal command.

2. An adverb added to a noun is, for the same reason, an **adjective modifier** ; as,

the above remarks.

3. A noun added to some verbs, adjectives and adverbs, is an **adverbial modifier** ; as,

He walked a mile.

The stick is a foot long (long a foot).

He will depart ten days hence (hence ten days).

4. An infinitive modifying a noun adds the idea of purpose, object, etc., to a kindred idea suggested in the noun, and is, therefore, an **adverbial modifier** ; as,

a duty to perform,

a platform to stand on, scissors to grind.

5. The same infinitive phrase may be the object **noun modifier** of a transitive verb, or an **adverbial modifier** of an intransitive verb ; as,

He wished to visit a friend ;

He came to visit a friend (showing the purpose of the action).

6. The same prepositional phrase may be an **adjective modifier** of the subject, or an **adverbial modifier** of the predicate ; as,

The house on the hill is their home.

They live on the hill (= where they live).

7. The same noun clause may be an objective **noun modifier** of a transitive verb, or an **adverbial modifier** of an intransitive verb ; as,

He desired that I should join him.

He insisted that I should join him (= insisted on my joining him).

8. The dependent relative, or **adjective clause** as a modifier embraces any dependent clauses that may be attached to it ; as,

This is the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.

The modifier of *rat* is the whole complex clause that follows.

9. The adverb dependent clause as an **adjective modifier** may be distinguished from the adverb clause as an **adverbial modifier** by the fact that the former is joined by the connecting word to a noun or pronoun, the latter to a verb ; as,

He went at a time when (at which) the train arrived.

He went when the train arrived.

380. *Modifiers are distinguished by the parts of speech which they modify, and by the class of modifying ideas which they add.*

381. *A phrase as modifier includes such related words*

or subordinate phrases as together represent a complete modifying idea.

382. A phrase as a whole may be a modifier different in kind from the parts which compose it.

383. A prepositional phrase is an adjective modifier when it modifies a noun idea, and an adverbial modifier when it modifies the idea of a verb, adjective, or adverb.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the classes of modifiers according to ideas; the parts of speech they respectively modify; classification by form; how modifiers are first to be regarded; what the modifying phrase includes; a principal modifier and its parts as to kind; a phrase as modifier of subject, predicate, and intransitive predicate; the class of its subordinate modifiers; three cases of a participial phrase as modifier; a general rule for distinction of modifiers; two cases of the infinitive as modifier; two of prepositional phrase; two of noun clause; what the relative clause as modifier includes; distinction of adverb clauses.

Exercise.

384. Describe the modifiers and their parts.

1. *The cat's strong attachment to home, and indisposition to change it, are worthy of notice.*

The subject is compound—*attachment* and *indisposition*; the incomplete predicate is *are*. The first member of the subject is modified by *cat's*, *strong* and *to home*. *Cat's*, itself limited by the adjective modifier *the*, is an adjective modifier, because it modifies a noun, *attachment*, and because it adds the adjective idea of possession; *strong* is an adjective modifier, because it adds an adjective idea of quality; the phrase *to home* is an adjective modifier of *attachment*, consisting of a noun doing the work of an adjective by the help of a preposition, and describing the

kind of "attachment." *Indisposition* is modified by *cat's*, already explained, and by the infinitive phrase *to change it*, used as appositive noun modifier; its leading word is *change*, of which *it* is objective noun modifier referring to *home*.

The predicate is modified by the predicate adjective modifier *worthy*, which indirectly modifies the subject, and completes the predicate *are*. *Worthy* is modified by the phrase *of notice*, an adverbial modifier, because adding to an adjective an idea of manner.

2. A ring he hath (has) of mine worth forty ducats.
3. Mine be a cot beside the hill.
4. The poet sings of "Truths that wake to perish never."
5. When you doubt, do not act.
6. "Stones have been known to move, and trees (have been known) to speak."
7. I'll make thee glorious by my pen, and famous by my sword.
8. A bird in the hand is worth two (birds) in the bush.
9. Virtue consists in action.
10. How to be successful is what we want to know.
11. The bird that sings on highest wing
Builds on the ground her lowly nest.
12. The fault, dear Brutus, is not in our stars,
But in ourselves, that we are underlings.

XLI. FORMS OF SENTENCES.

385. A sentence consists of a subject named and a predicate declared. A **simple sentence** contains but one subject and one predicate. A series of single subjects belonging to the same predicate are one subject, and a series of single predicates belonging to the same subject are one predicate.

The number of the subjects named and the number of predicates declared do not affect the simplicity of a sen-

tence ; provided, that the naming of the subjects is not interrupted by a predicate, and that the declaring of the predicates is not interrupted by a subject.

The milkman, the baker, the butcher and the iceman have come, have taken their orders and have gone.

This is a simple sentence, because the single subjects are all given without interruption by any predicate, and the predicates are united without interruption by any subject.

386. In any such sentence, each individual subject belongs to all the predicates, and each individual predicate belongs to all the subjects. Hence, the subjects are in effect one subject, and are called a **compound subject** ; and the predicates are in effect one predicate, and are called a **compound predicate**.

387. In the example given, interrupt the series of single subjects by inserting a predicate ; as,

The milkman has come, and the baker, the butcher and the iceman have come, have taken their orders and have gone.

Here the simplicity of the sentence is broken by introducing a predicate after the first single subject. This, with the subject, makes a separate sentence, or clause, and cuts the subject *milkman* away from all the remaining predicates, making in effect two independent clauses.

Since, however, these clauses are joined by a coördinating conjunction, and are included between an initial capital letter and a concluding period, they are one sentence, and the whole is called a **compound sentence**.

388. The number of independent clauses may be increased by inserting a subject before each of the predicates ; as,

The milkman has come, the baker, the butcher and the iceman have come; they have taken their orders and they have gone.

A different change also destroys the simplicity of the sentence, and makes a different kind of sentence; as,

The milkman, who drives a red wagon, the baker, the butcher and the iceman have come.

Here the series of subjects is interrupted by an adjective clause, with a subject and predicate of its own, modifying the first single subject by asserting a description of it. Without the relative pronoun connecting this clause with the noun *milkman*, the sentence would run, *The milkman—milkman drives a red wagon—etc.* The relative pronoun gives the clause a dependent relation, and leaves the subject *milkman* to take the same predicate as it had before.

Because this dependent clause is so closely woven with an independent clause the sentence containing it is called a **complex sentence**.

389. The complex sentence with an adjective clause may be changed into a simple sentence by substituting a different form of adjective modifier in place of the dependent clause; as,

The milkman, driving a red wagon, etc.

390. Still another change gives a different kind of sentence; as,

The milkman, who drives a red wagon, came, and the baker, etc., came also.

Here the insertion of a predicate and a coördinate conjunction, after the dependent clause, divides the sentence

into two independent clauses, making a compound sentence. But since one of the independent clauses contains a dependent clause, and is therefore complex, the whole sentence is a **compound-complex sentence**.

The other member of the compound also may contain a dependent clause ; as,

The milkman who drives a red wagon came, and the baker, if I mistake not, came also.

391. *A simple sentence is one which contains but one subject and one predicate. Either the subject, or the predicate, or both, may be compound. A simple sentence forming a part of another sentence is a clause; as, The milkman came; The milkman came, and the baker came.*

392. *An independent clause makes complete sense when standing alone. A dependent clause makes complete sense only when forming a part of an independent clause; as, The milkman (who drives a red wagon) came.*

393. *Members of compound subjects and predicates, and clauses of the same rank, are joined by coördinate conjunctions. Dependent clauses are connected by relative pronouns, subordinate conjunctions, and conjunctive adverbs.*

394. *A compound sentence is one that is composed of two or more independent clauses; as, The wind blows, and the sea is rough; therefore we shall postpone our trip.*

395. *A complex sentence is one that contains a dependent clause or more than one such clause; as, The man who drives the red wagon, if I mistake not, is the milkman.*

396. *A compound-complex sentence is a compound sentence one of whose clauses, at least, is complex; as, He*

who is industrious will prosper, but he that is slothful will come to want.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: simple sentence, its subject and predicate; compound subject and compound predicate; how the simplicity may be changed; the compound sentence; the insertion of a dependent clause; the complex sentence; how a complex sentence may be simplified; the compound-complex sentence; what connecting words join the members of compound subjects and the clauses of compound sentences; what join dependent to independent clauses.

Exercise.

397. Point out subject and predicate, simple and compound. Designate the kind of sentence, and explain the clauses and modifiers.

1. The domestic cat is not identical with the Egyptian cat.
2. I had for ten years a cat whose intelligence greatly interested me.
3. Her confidence in her master and mistress, her evident enjoyment of their society, her happy faculty of putting herself upon an understanding with them, her familiar interest in matters of the household, and her sagacity manifested in various ways evoked admiration and praise.
4. A dog which surrenders its bone to another without a struggle, and runs away, we call a coward.
5. Affability, mildness, tenderness, are of daily use; they are the bread of mankind.
6. Thousands of men breathe, move and live, pass off the stage of life and are heard of no more.
7. We are more heavily taxed by our idleness, pride and folly, than we are taxed by government.
8. Happy is the man who owes nothing.
9. Except that I have a cold, I am in my usual health.
10. When we cannot act as we wish, we must act as we can.
11. When thieves fall out, thefts are discovered.
12. The snail has been slandered because it is slow.

XLII. ORDER OF ARRANGEMENT.

398. In most of our examples, thus far, the **order** in which the essential parts of the sentence have been placed is **direct**, or **regular**, the subject and its modifiers being written in advance of the predicate and its modifiers ; as,

Washington was a great man.

399. It sometimes happens, however, that the predicate occurs in the sentence before the subject. This is often the case with predicate nouns and adjectives, when emphasis of a quality is desired ; as,

Great is Dianu of the Ephesians.

The requirements of verse frequently compel such an arrangement ; as,

Large was his bounty, and his soul sincere.

This arrangement is called the **inverted order**, and sentences so arranged are called inverted sentences. The regular, or grammatical, order of such sentences may be made plain by rearrangement ; as,

Diana of the Ephesians is great.

Interrogative sentences must be inverted, unless the inflection of the voice makes a question of the regular order.

He is alive?

This may ask a question by an upward inflection of the voice ; but the usual order is to make the verb, or its auxiliary, the interrogative word ; as,

Is he alive?

An interrogative pronoun or adverb often precedes the verb ; as,

Where is he going? = He is going where?

In sentences which employ the conditional mode of the verb, the inverted order is much used instead of the subjunctive with the conjunction *if*.

Had you thought of it, you would have come earlier
= *You would have come earlier if you had thought of it.*

Were I a man, I should see the world = *I should see the world if I were a man.*

The inverted clause is dependent, and is used without a connective word.

The imperative sentence necessarily takes the inverted form.

Come (you) here is not equivalent to
You come here.

In the latter case the imperative idea is lost. The subject of the imperative is generally not expressed. It must be a personal pronoun of the second person, because it denotes the person spoken to. It stands for the name of the person addressed. The imperative is parsed as without a subject expressed.

400. A common form of command or entreaty is expressed by an auxiliary verb followed by an infinitive ; as,

Let us (indirect object) go (to go, direct object).

Let's you and me go = *Let us, you and me (appositive), go.*

A mild imperative is expressed by the potential inverted ; as,

May God bless you.

The same idea may be expressed simply by,

God bless you.

401. Interrogative and imperative sentences may be

simple, compound or complex, and in parsing or analyzing them the regular arrangement must be made, either mentally or in writing.

Was the man who came with you an American? = The man who came with you was an American.

402. The modifiers of the subject, as we have seen, are often placed before the subject, and the modifiers of the predicate may precede both subject and predicate ; as,

Bravely, gallantly, and with a courage worthy of veterans, the volunteers withstood the charge.

403. *An inverted sentence is one in which the predicate is placed before the subject.*

404. *To analyze an inverted sentence the arrangement of subject and predicate and their modifiers must be changed to the regular order.*

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the regular order of arrangement in sentences; the inverted order, with illustrations; the order of interrogative sentences; of conditional sentences; of imperative sentences; another form of command; interrogative and imperative sentences as to dependent modifiers; the irregular arrangement of modifiers of subject and predicate; what is to be done before parsing or analyzing an inverted sentence; which words in the examples are modifiers of the subject, and which of the predicate.

Exercise.

405. Rearrange the inverted order; point out the subject and predicate and their modifiers; explain the dependent clauses, and parse the imperatives and infinitives.

1. Sweet are the uses of adversity.
2. Of the making of many books there is no end.
3. Good, brave, noble and wise was he.

4. Roll on, thou deep and dark blue Ocean—roll!
5. Being weary of the journey, hungry, thirsty, and worn out, and finding a pleasant shade, we retired under a broad, spreading tree.
6. Has he come at last?
7. Did he, who had been so long absent, recognize his friends?
8. What sought they thus afar?
9. What do we give to our beloved?
10. Who filled thy countenance with rosy light?
11. Were I a bird, I would fly away.
12. "Let us, then, be up and doing,
With a heart for any fate."
13. "Come as the winds come when forests are rended."
14. "Breathes there a man with soul so dead
Who never to himself hath (has) said,
This is my own, my native land?"
15. "Beneath those rugged elms, that yew tree's shade,
Where heaves the turf in many a moldering heap,
Each in his narrow cell for ever laid,
The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep."

XLIII. ABBREVIATED SPEECH.

406. There is a tendency in ordinary speech to express thought more briefly than by sentences complete in every part. The reasons for shortened modes of expression are chiefly two—economy and emphasis. The omitted parts of sentences are said to be understood, and the omission is called an **ellipsis** (plural **ellipses**).

1. A word or phrase, important to the construction of a sentence, may be omitted, for economy. The connective relative of a clause may be omitted; as,
I have the book (which) you wanted.
2. The connective of a noun clause may be omitted; as,
I knew (that) you were here.

3. A phrase modifier may be omitted ; as,

It is half-past ten (of the clock).

4. For emphasis, a verb and its subject or object may be omitted ; as,

Good morning = I wish you good morning.

Away with you! = Get away with you!

5. They are sometimes omitted for both economy and emphasis ; as,

Thanks! = I give you thanks.

6. The verb or its auxiliary may be omitted to save repetition ; as,

I am a citizen, not an alien = I am not an alien.

7. A whole clause or sentence may be implied in a single word, as in *yes* or *no* ; as,

Shall you go to-morrow?

Ans. *Yes = I shall go to-morrow;*

or, *No = I shall not go to-morrow.*

Who is the boy that jumped over the fence, and climbed up the tree?

Ans. *John = John is the boy that jumped over the fence, and climbed up the tree.*

8. The compound sentence is an abbreviation of two or more simple sentences. The compound subject and compound predicate are abbreviations by which as many sentences are dispensed with as there are subjects, except one, or as many sentences as there are predicates, except one ; as,

The boy is here, The man is here, The horse is here = The boy and the man and the horse are here.

I came, I saw, I conquered = I came, saw, and conquered.

9. In a compound sentence, the predicate and modifiers of a clause may be omitted, to save repetition ; as,

My friend will not consent to the proposition, but I will = but I will consent to the proposition.

10. The infinitive and its object may be omitted, being represented only by the sign *to* ; as,

I am not going to the fair, though I want to = though I want to go to the fair.

I can not go out to-day, though I ought to = though I ought to go out to-day.

11. The adverb *so* may stand for an unexpressed phrase or clause ; as,

The boys have been idle all day, and we grieve that they were so = grieve that they were idle all day.

12. The verb *do* is often substituted for another verb, or for a verb and its modifiers, to save repetition ; as,

He studies more easily than I do = than I study.

He works his problems more easily than I do = than I work my problems.

13. Both the subject and the incomplete predicate of a dependent clause may be omitted ; as,

The report, if true, is startling = if it be true, etc.

Send the shoes when finished = when they are finished.

14. In like manner a relative or an adverb is left to stand for the clause which either of them would connect if the clause were expressed ; as,

One of the boys must come and help me, I care not which = which of the boys comes and helps me.

15. The conjunctions of comparison are often used where verbs, phrases or clauses are omitted. It is evident that the essential parts of a clause are omitted in the following :

He is stronger than I (am).

He acts as if he were angry = as he would act if he were angry.

16. But there is a peculiar use of *as*, by which it is simply an appositive connective, and a coördinate conjunction, connecting words of equal rank ; as,

Milton's fame as a poet is universal =

Milton's fame, as the fame (appositive) of a poet, is, etc.

- Here the omitted part is, *the fame of*, *fame* being nominative in apposition, and *poet* being objective after *of*.
So—

The birds as a rule are black =

The birds, as birds by (or according to) a rule, are black.

17. *So as* is used, especially before an infinitive, to represent a dependent clause which is omitted ; as,

You must go early, so as to get a seat =

so early as it is necessary to go to get a seat.

- 407.** Sentences may be made shorter and more compact in the following ways :

1. By changing a relative dependent clause into a participial phrase, thus simplifying the sentence and dispensing with a connecting word ; as,

The man who wears a tall hat has arrived = The man wearing a tall hat has arrived.

2. By changing an adverb dependent clause to a noun absolute clause, thus dispensing with the connecting word ; as,

When the rain ceased, he came = The rain having ceased, he came.

3. By changing an objective noun clause into indirect and direct objects ; as,

I wish that he may be a lawyer = I wish him (indirect) to be a lawyer (direct object).

4. By changing a subject noun clause into an infinitive subject and an adverbial prepositional phrase ; as,

That one should fly is impossible = For one to fly is impossible = To fly is impossible for one (any one).

That we should do right is our greatest duty = To do right is our greatest duty.

5. By changing the case of the noun in the noun clause from the nominative or objective to the possessive, and the verb to a participle ; as,

That he is young is no crime = His being young is no crime.

I did not know that he was here = I did not know of his being here.

The phrase *of his being here* is an adverbial modifier of *know*.

SYNOPSIS.—State the reasons for abbreviated speech. Explain : ellipsis ; the omission of the connective of a relative clause ; of a noun clause ; of a phrase modifier—with examples ; what is omitted with *Good morning*, and why ; the omission of a verb to avoid repetition ; the substitution of a single word for a clause ; the abbreviation in a compound sentence ; in compound subject and predicate ; the omission of predicate and modifiers ; of the infinitive, and what remains of it ; the adverb *so* ; the verb *do* as a substitute ; abbreviation of dependent clause ; that of a relative clause, and what stands for it ; what the conjunction of comparison may represent, with example ; *so as*. State five ways of shortening sentences ; give examples.

Exercise.

408. Restore the omitted parts, and show their relations to the sentence. Resolve compound sentences, compound subjects and predicates into separate and simple sentences. Rearrange inverted sentences. Point out the main and dependent clauses of complex sentences, and give the original form of abridged sentences.

1. *I shall finish at a quarter after twelve the task you assigned me.*

The omitted parts are *of an hour* after *quarter*, *of the clock* after *twelve* and *which* after *task*. The complete sentence is,

I shall finish at a quarter of an hour after twelve of the clock the task which you assigned me.

Of an hour is an adjective modifier of the noun *quarter*. *Of the clock* is an adjective modifier of *twelve* used as a noun. *Which* is a relative pronoun connecting *task*, its antecedent, with the dependent clause *you assigned me*, an adjective modifier of *task*. The sentence is complex, the independent clause being, *I shall finish the task a quarter of an hour after twelve of the clock*.

2. Unless you will be civil, off with you !
3. Will you accompany me to the office ? Yes, if convenient ; thanks.
4. I conclude you are a citizen here, not a stranger.
5. What is the name of the man elected governor, at the last election ? Campbell.
6. Johnson says he will not accept the proposition at the price named, but I will.
7. He declines to come and see us, much as he wants to. (Here an appositive adjective modifier, qualifying the subject *he*, is omitted before *much* = *He wanting to come as much as he wants to come, declines*, etc.)

8. *Which* is neuter gender, third person singular, because its antecedent is so.
9. Though exhausted, he continued his journey.
10. She gives more attention to music than some do.
11. Come when notified.
12. We demand that some assistance be sent us; we are not particular what.
13. Webster's reputation as an orator was great.
14. He looked as if faint.
15. Tell my friend he must be there early, so as to catch the train.
16. The man with a black beard was here.
17. The train having come, they departed.
18. I recommend him to be chairman of the meeting.
19. His coming late did no harm.

XLIV. ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

409. Having learned all the forms and characteristics of sentences, we are prepared to consider **complete analysis**.

The object of analysis is that we may view the relations of the modifiers to the essential parts of the sentence and to each other (§282).

Models for analysis are designed simply to illustrate what is essential to the process. Any particular method may be followed that will attain the desired result.

410. The essentials of analysis are :

- I. **To present the complete sentence in regular arrangement,** the omissions or ellipses, if any, being restored.

Webster's reputation as an orator was great.

Here the phrase *as an orator*, introduced by the conjunction of comparison *as*, is proper, but not strictly grammatical, as it stands. The meaning is obvious — *Webster's oratorical reputation*; but this is ex-

pressed in an abbreviated form, and the ellipsis must be supplied. The conjunctive *as*, in such a case, is the connective of an appositive modifier omitted (§406). Supplying the ellipsis we have: *Webster's reputation as the reputation of an orator was great.* The sentence is now both regular in arrangement, and complete in expression.

II. To pronounce the expression a sentence, and to state its class, both as to meaning and form, with reasons for the judgment.

This is a sentence, because it expresses a thought; a declarative sentence, because it directly asserts something; a simple sentence, because composed of but one subject and one predicate.

III. To designate the subject and predicate; as,

reputation | was

IV. To point out the modifiers of the subject, and explain their relations to the subject, and to the parts that compose them if they are complex.

The modifiers of the subject are *Webster's* and *as the reputation of an orator.* *Webster's* is an adjective modifier, because it adds the idea of possession to a noun—*reputation.* *As the reputation of an orator* is a phrase whose leading word is *reputation,* modified by *of an orator,* an adjective modifier. This phrase repeats the subject, to explain its relation to the noun *orator,* and is an appositive noun modifier, connected by *as.*

V. To state the modified subject.

The modified subject is: *Webster's reputation, as the reputation of an orator.*

VI. To point out the modifiers of the predicate.

The predicate is modified by *great.*

Great is an adjective modifier, because through the verb it modifies the subject *reputation*; predicate adjective modifier, because it completes the predication of the predicate, enabling it to declare completely.

VII. To state the modified predicate.

The modified predicate is *was great*.

NOTE.—The complete form of analysis is to be followed only when a thorough review of all the principles is desired. Ordinarily the brief form serves the purpose. This will dispense with the common designation of the declarative class, and with particular explanations. The kind of sentence as regards form will be stated, and the modifiers and subordinate modifiers will be pointed out and characterized as briefly as possible.

(a) SIMPLE SENTENCE.

411. *Webster's reputation as an orator was great.*

For the analysis of this sentence, see the model (§410).

(b) COMPOUND SENTENCE.

412. *Poverty is in want of much, but avarice of everything.*

The sentence is abbreviated; the verb and phrase *is in want* are omitted after *avarice*—the complete expression is, *but avarice is in want of everything*.

The sentence is compound; the independent clauses are *Poverty is in want of much, avarice is in want of everything*, joined by the coördinating conjunction *but*.

The subject of the first clause is *poverty*, the incomplete predicate *is*. The subject is modified through the verb by the phrase *in want*, an adjective modifier. The predicate is modified by the same phrase, a predicate adjective modifier, completing the predicate *is*. The leading word of the phrase is *want*, which is modified by *of much*, an

adjective modifier. The modified predicate is, *is in want of much*.

The subject of the second clause is *avarice*, modified indirectly by the phrase *in want of everything*, adjective modifier. The incomplete predicate *is* is modified by the same phrase, a predicate adjective modifier, completing the predicate. The leading word of the phrase is *want*, modified by *of everything*, an adjective modifier. The modified predicate is, *is in want of everything*.

(c) COMPLEX SENTENCE.

413. *We do not count a man's years until he has nothing else to count.*

The sentence is complex; *We do not count a man's years* is the independent clause; *until he has nothing else to count*, the dependent clause, connected by the subordinate conjunction *until*.

We, unmodified, is the subject of the independent clause; *do count*, progressive form of verb, is the predicate, modified by *not*, adverbial modifier, and by *years*, objective modifier, which is modified by *a* and *man's*, adjective modifiers.

The predicate is further modified by the dependent clause *until*, etc., an adverbial modifier.

The subject of the clause is *he*, unmodified; the predicate, *has*, modified by *nothing*, objective modifier; by *else*, and the infinitive *to count*, adverbial modifiers. The modified predicate is, *do not count a man's years until he has nothing else to count*.

(d) COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCE.

414. *He that observeth (observes) the wind shall not sow; and he that regardeth (regards) the clouds shall not reap.*

The sentence is compound, composed of two independent clauses joined by the coördinate conjunction *and*; compound-complex, because the independent clauses contain dependent clauses connected by the relative pronoun *that*. The independent clauses, being complex sentences, are analyzed after the last model.

NOTE.—The examples which have hitherto been before us were selected for the purpose of illustrating principles, and generally consist of complete and brief sentences. The exercises that follow are taken from standard reading, and suggest several points worthy of attention, which will be briefly noticed.

415. A simple sentence is not necessarily short.

It is desirable to express thoughts briefly as well as clearly; but some simple sentences may be very long, from the number of subjects or predicates joined in compounds, or from the extent of the modifiers.

416. It will be observed that abbreviation and ellipsis are quite common, even in the best of writing.

The connecting words are very often omitted, and in their place are inserted commas, semicolons, or dashes. In poetry, this kind of ellipsis is frequent to suit the meter or measure of the verse.

417. What the omitted connectives are must be judged by the sense. Upon their character, whether they are coördinate or subordinate conjunctions, relatives or conjunctive adverbs, will often depend the class of the sentence.

A subordinate conjunction, a relative, or a conjunctive adverb, supplied, may change one of the clauses of an apparently compound sentence into a dependent clause, which will make the sentence compound-complex.

418. An abbreviated sentence which appears to be simple

may be found, when the omitted parts are restored, to be complex.

This possibility may be suspected when subordinating conjunctions are used in abbreviations ; as,

The report is encouraging, if true = *The report is encouraging if it is true*—a complex sentence.

419. The conjunction *as* generally connects a dependent clause, the essential parts of which are either expressed or understood ; as,

She is as bright as ever = *She is as bright as ever she was.*

The omission represented by *as* may be sometimes avoided by regarding *as* in the light of an appositive conjunction ; as,

As a merchant, he is successful.

This may mean :

As a merchant is successful, he is successful ; or,

He as a merchant is successful (§406).

420. *Neither—nor, either—or, both—and*, are correlative, coördinate conjunctions (§258), which are parsed as single conjunctions, one member introducing, the other standing between, the parts connected ; as,

Neither he nor I have it. Both he and I went.

421. *As well as*, seldom separated as a correlative, is used instead of *and*, for emphasis ; as,

Women as well as men were there.

422. The adjectives *next, near, like*, are peculiar, followed as they often are by the objective of a noun or pronoun, as if they exert a kind of force. They are also used as prepositions ; as,

You are like him. He stood near the house. He acted like a mad man.

These last phrases are adverbial modifiers.

It must always be borne in mind that words are to be classed not by their separate or absolute meaning, but by their use in particular constructions. *But* is a conjunction ; it may be a preposition ; as,

All but him came.

It may be an adverb ; as,

He is but a man.

SYNOPSIS.—State : the object of analysis ; the first essential of analysis, with illustration ; the second essential ; the third ; the fourth ; the fifth ; the sixth ; the seventh.

Explain : the simple sentence as to its length ; abbreviation in good writing, and what is often omitted ; how omitted connectives are to be decided upon ; what may change an apparently compound sentence ; a simple sentence ; the use of *as* ; of correlatives ; of *as well as* ; the adjective *next*, etc. ; the principle in classification of words.

Exercise.

Simple Sentences.

423. Analyze the following sentences according to the model for simple sentences given on page 181.

1. Hedges, fields and trees, hill and moorland presented to the eye their ever-varying shades of deep, rich green.
2. Astounding evolutions they were, one rank firing over the heads of another rank, and running away in their turn ; and then forming squares with officers in the center ; and then descending the trench on one side with scaling ladders, and ascending it on the other again by the same means ; and knocking down barricades of baskets, and behaving in the most gallant manner possible.
3. Mr. Winkle flashed and blazed, and smoked away, without producing any material results worthy of being noted down.
4. As a display of fancy shooting, it was extremely varied and curious.
5. The cat, like the dog, has canine teeth.
6. Quit yourselves like men.

7. Some forty years ago, both the English and Dutch authorities, in the West Indies, took alarm at the growing price of quinine.
8. Neither death, nor life, nor angels, nor principalities, nor powers, nor things present, nor things to come, nor height, nor depth, nor any other creature, shall be able to separate us from the love of God.
9. In Europe, Asia, Africa, America, the whole world over ; in the desert, in the forest, on the sea ; scorched by a burning sun, or frozen by ice that never melts—the Saxon blood remains unchanged.

Exercise.

Compound Sentences.

424. Analyze the following sentences according to the model on page 183.

1. The sky was cloudless; the sun shone out bright and warm; the song of birds and hum of myriads of insects filled the air; and the cottage gardens, crowded with flowers of every rich and beautiful tint, sparkled in the heavy dew, like beds of glittering jewels.
2. Bees and wasps are sometimes able to break through the spiral meshes of a large spider's web ; but generally the threads are strong enough to hold them, in spite of their struggles.
3. The breaking waves dashed high
On a stern and rock-bound coast,
And the woods against a stormy sky
Their giant branches tossed.
4. Amidst the storms they sang,
And the stars heard, and the sea;
And the sounding aisles of the dim woods rang
To the anthem of the free.
5. There were men with hoary hair
Amidst that pilgrim band:
Why had they come to wither there,
Away from their childhood's land?

6. The evil that men do lives after them;
The good is oft interrèd with their bones.
7. He was my friend, faithful and just to me:
But Brutus says he was ambitious;
And Brutus is an honorable man.

Exercise.

Complex Sentences.

425. Analyze according to the model on page 184.

1. The time of his success was a good time, Richard thought, for summoning a Parliament and getting some money.
2. It was a fine morning—so fine that you would scarcely have believed that the few months of an English summer had yet flown by.
3. Every child that is born must have a just chance for its bread.
4. How many would die, did not hope sustain them.
5. Abraham Lincoln, in his early life, was famous for telling stories and making stump speeches on the farms where he worked.
6. The gain which is made at the expense of reputation should rather be set down as a loss.
7. Among elephants, the rogue, because he has committed some misdemeanor, is expelled from the herd.
8. Among bees, drones, when no longer needed, are, it is said, killed by the workers.
9. It is confidently reported that crows execute an offending member.
10. And among rooks, a pair that steals sticks from a neighboring nest has its own nest pulled in pieces by the rest.
11. I recall the morning walks I took last year with my dogs, the sky so fine, the sea so silvery.
12. A song to the oak, the brave old oak,
Who hath ruled in the greenwood long.
13. In the days of old, when the spring with cold
Had brightened his branches gray,
Through the grass at his feet, crept maidens sweet,
To gather the dews of May.

Exercise.

Compound-Complex Sentences.

426. Analyze according to the model on page 184.

1. They set him (the Duke of York) down in mock state on an ant-hill ; they twisted grass about his head and pretended to pay court to him on their knees, saying, " O King without a kingdom, and Prince without a people, we hope your gracious Majesty is very well and happy."
2. A mellow softness appears to hang over the whole earth ; the influence of the season seems to extend itself to the very wagon, whose slow motion across the well-reaped field, is perceptible only to the eye, but strikes with no harsh sound upon the ear.
3. The fat boy rose, opened his eyes, swallowed the huge piece of pie he had been in the act of masticating when he last fell asleep, and slowly obeyed his master, gloating languidly over the remains of the feast, as he removed the plates and deposited them in the hamper.
4. When Freedom, from her mountain height,
Unfurled her standard to the air,
She tore the azure robe of night,
And set the stars of glory there.

XLV. SYNTHESIS.

427. Analysis divides a sentence into parts for the purpose of describing the parts and showing their relations (§282). This process has furnished us rules according to which the parts are combined.

428. We are now to consider the method of syntax that puts together the parts of a sentence, and which for this reason is called **synthesis**. This method applies rules to the construction of sentences, and to the correction of errors.

429. A more comprehensive view of the sentence must now be taken, including some external marks which assist words in the expression of ideas and thoughts.

430. Capital letters are used :

1. To begin a sentence;
2. To begin a proper name or a line of poetry;
3. To indicate the personal pronoun *I*, and the exclamation *O*;
4. To begin a direct quotation, or one which quotes the very words expressed;
5. For proper names and proper adjectives;
6. For most abbreviations;
7. For the days of the week and the months of the year;
8. For names of the Supreme Being.

431. At the close of every sentence is a space in which is placed :

1. A **period** (.) to indicate the end of a declarative or of an imperative sentence ; or,
2. An **interrogation point** (?) for an interrogative sentence; or,
3. An **exclamation point** (!) for an exclamatory sentence.

432. Points or marks thus used at the end of a sentence, or within a sentence to separate and combine ideas, and to make the meaning of words or groups of words more evident, are called **punctuation marks**.

The sentence is composed of ideas represented by words. Punctuation assists the eye to separate or group the words which express ideas that are more or less distinct.

433. The importance of punctuation may be seen in the different ideas expressed by different separations of the words of the following sentence :

He ordered a light supper room for himself and his dog provided for in the stable.

1. *He ordered a light, supper, room for himself, and his dog provided for in the stable.*

2. *He ordered a light supper, room for himself and his dog, provided for in the stable.*

434. The **period** (.), except when used to mark an abbreviation, never occurs within a sentence, but the interrogation and exclamation points are frequently so used ; as,

What are our rights? is the question before us. Hark! they are coming.

435. The **colon** (:) has a limited use, chiefly to separate a general statement from the particular statements that follow, as is illustrated in the second line of §431.

436. The **semicolon** (;) separates clauses less distinct, and yet closely enough related to be contained within the same sentence, like the independent clauses of a compound sentence.

In general, the semicolon may be used to punctuate all compounds, clauses, phrases, etc., that are too long to be set off by commas, or when conjunctions and commas are omitted ; as,

Fools make feasts, and wise men eat them = Fools make feasts; wise men eat them.

437. The **comma** (,) is more extensively used than any other point, because it is employed to separate the ideas and modifiers that are less distinct than those set off by the semicolon.

Children and monkeys naturally shrink from snakes.

Within this sentence no punctuation is needed, because the two ideas represented by *children* and *monkeys* are related to the predicate in precisely the same way. If, however, a restriction is placed upon *monkeys* which does not belong to *children*, this slight distinction of ideas will require a comma to indicate it ; as,

Children, and monkeys confined in cages, naturally shrink, etc.

438. The **curves** () are used to inclose a *parenthesis*,

which is an expression having no necessary connection, in idea or construction, with the sentence ; as,

They complain (some people are always complaining) of the accommodations.

439. The **dash** (—) is used to set off an explanatory expression, to indicate an abrupt turn in the thought, or to close a series of appositives when there is a summing up of several ideas or thoughts ; as,

I thank you, but—I shall not accept.

Fame, influence, power—these will all perish.

440. The principles concerned in the construction of sentences are chiefly these :

Rules for the relations of the parts.

Arrangement of the parts.

Punctuation.

The importance of arrangement has been referred to (§§20, 278).

The more important rules governing the relation and combination of the parts are :

1. *The noun or pronoun as subject of a sentence is in the nominative case (§292).*
2. *The objective case denotes the object of a verb or of a preposition (§146).*
3. *A verb must agree with its subject in person and number (§311).*
4. *A pronoun must agree with its antecedent, or the noun it represents, in person, gender and number (§131).*

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: analysis; synthesis; external marks that belong to the sentence; use of capitals and period; punctuation; its importance illustrated; the sentence given as an example punctuated in five different ways with as many different meanings; the colon and its use; the semicolon; general use of the comma; dash; curves; principles concerned in construction ; the more important rules.

XLVI. CONSTRUCTION OF THE NOMINATIVE.

441. The subject of a sentence, which is a noun or its equivalent, a simple or a compound subject, is in the nominative case (§291). This is the chief distinction of the nominative case, that it **names** the subject of thought.

442. Since the noun does not indicate this case by its form, the force of the principle just stated is seen in the use of the personal pronoun, which does denote case by its form (§142).

443. The nominative case occurring within the sentence distinguishes the word having this case as the subject, with the following exceptions :

1. The **nominative case independent**, used in direct address and exclamation (§142) ; as,

Thou fool ! who would have believed thee ?

2. The **noun absolute** (§353) ; as,

They walked, arms folded.

They consenting, we entered.

3. The **predicate noun**, sometimes called the nominative after the verb, which is always in the nominative case (§313) ; as,

This is he. These are they.

4. The **nominative case in apposition** with the subject or with the predicate noun ; as,

Milton, the poet, was blind.

444. The unreal subjects *it* and *there* (§294), which enable the real subject to follow the verb, have no case ; the real subject being a noun, or its equivalent, in the nomina-

tive, or a noun clause parsed as nominative, third person and neuter gender ; as,

It is he.

It is right that every man should control himself.

445. Other words and phrases used for the subject are parsed in a similar manner.

PUNCTUATION.

446. A comma is placed between members of a compound subject not connected by a connecting word, and is used with a connecting word when the members of the compound bear a different relation to the predicate. Where the members of a compound subject are long or contain commas, a semicolon is used for separation.

A quoted clause used as subject requires a comma after it ; as,

“Don't give up the ship,” was the command of Lawrence.

A noun clause as predicate noun should be preceded by a comma ; as,

The question is, whether we shall succeed or not.

ERRORS TO BE AVOIDED.

447. Wrong Case.

1. The objective case must not be used for the subject. *He and I went fishing* is correct ; but *Him and me went fishing* is incorrect, because the objective instead of the nominative case is used for the subject.

2. The proper answer to the question, *Who is it?* is, *It*

is *I*, or *he*, or *she*; not *me*, *him* or *her*, because these are in the objective case. Whether regarded as the real subject after *it* or as predicate pronouns, the words following the verb *to be* must be in the nominative case.

3. It is proper to say, *You are taller than I*, not *You are taller than me*, because a verb is omitted after the conjunction *than*, of which verb *me* is incorrectly made the subject. The latter form is equivalent to *You are taller than me am*, which violates the rule.

4. *I know who are there*, is correct, and *I know whom are there*, is incorrect, because *whom* is made subject of *are*. The object of *know* is the antecedent *men*, or *persons*, omitted.

448. Wrong Arrangement.

In the compound subject including several personal subjects, the personal pronoun of the first person should be placed last, and the verb made to agree with it—*I, James or the rest of the boys are going fishing*, should be, *James, the rest of the boys or I am*, etc.

SYNOPSIS.—State: the rule for the subject; what word indicates the nominative by form; what nominatives, not naming the subject, are sometimes found in a sentence; the use of *it* and *there* as subject; how other substitutes for the noun subject are parsed; the use of the comma and semicolon with the subject; why *me* and *him* cannot be used for subject.

Exercise.

449. Analyze; point out the subjects and explain them; explain punctuation, and supply it, if wanting.

1. A mind bold, independent and decisive; a will despotic in its dictates; an energy that distanced expedition; and a conscience pliable to every touch of interest, marked the outlines of this extraordinary character.

2. There were sham castles temporary chapels fountains running wine great cellars full of wine as free as water to all comers silk tents gold lace and foil gilt lions and such things without end.

450. Correct, supply omissions and parse :

1. Here's the boys, them that you told me to call. I and George found 'em. Him and me hunted all over for 'em.
2. Guess whom has come.
3. Them's the books we want.
4. Who has come ? Its him that called yesterday.

XLVII. CONSTRUCTION OF THE PREDICATE.

451. The verb is predicate, because the verb is the only word that declares (§310), though it is often incomplete.

452. Some verbs declare, or predicate in themselves, and are called intransitive verbs (§305) ; some predicate indefinitely, unless followed by an object, and are called transitive verbs (§312).

453. Some verbs are incomplete in their predication, except with a noun or pronoun in the nominative, or with an adjective (§313) ; while some predicate either with or without the predicate noun or adjective ; as,

The sun appears. The sun appears bright.

454. The verb predicates of the subject, and is limited in the scope of its declaration to two features of the subject—number and person (§297). Hence the rule, *A verb must agree with its subject in person and number* (§311).

1. A subject in the first person requires a verb in the first person ; as,

I hear, not I hears.

He hears, not He hear.

2. A subject in the plural form regularly requires a verb in the plural number ; as,

The cows graze, not grazes.

If, however, the noun with a plural form contains a singular idea, the verb must be in the singular ; as,

Politics is uncertain.

The wages of sin is death.

A collective noun takes a verb in the singular when the singular idea is prominent, and a verb in the plural when the plural idea is prominent (§298).

Compound subjects take plural verbs, unless the connecting word between the members breaks the plural idea, and makes separate or singular ideas (§299). Then the verb agrees in person and number with one of the singulars, namely, with that nearest to it ; as,

He and his wife have come. Not he, but his wife has come.

When the members of the compound subject mean the same thing, the verb is in the singular ; as,

A dutiful boy and son was he.

The conjunction *as well as* changes the plural idea of a compound subject ; as,

Interest as well as honor requires it, not require it.

PUNCTUATION.

455. The predicate is separated by a comma from a noun clause used as a predicate noun ; as,

The fact is, that he departed long ago.

The same clause as subject requires no comma after it ; as,

That he departed long ago is a fact.

456. The members of a compound predicate are separated by commas when the connecting word is omitted ; as,

I came, saw and conquered.

457. The clauses of compound sentences are separated by commas ; or, if long, or containing commas, they are separated by semicolons.

When the clauses are short, the comma and conjunction may be used ; but in place of these the semicolon may be substituted ; as,

Life is short, and art is long.

Life is short ; art is long.

458. A comma takes the place of a predicate omitted, to save repetition.

ERRORS TO BE AVOIDED.

459. Wrong Words.

Do not use :

1. *An't* and *han't* for *am not* and *have not* or *haven't*. To say *He an't*, is to say *He am not*. The proper contractions are *isn't* and *haven't* ; the others should be avoided.

2. The participle for the verb—*I done it*, for *I did it*.

3. A transitive for an intransitive verb—*I set down*, for *I sat down* ; *I shall lay off a day*, for *I shall lie off*, etc.

4. The past tense with the auxiliary for the present perfect—*I have wrote*, for *I have written*.

5. A useless participle with a past tense—*I have done got my lesson*, for *I have got my lesson*.

460. Wrong Agreement.

1. Avoid a singular verb with a plural subject, and *vice versa*—*They was here*, for *They were here*. *You*, it must be remembered, is a plural pronoun used also for the old singular *thou*. Good usage retains with *you* the plural verb, even when the pronoun denotes but one—*You were*, not *You was*.

2. Avoid adapting the number of a verb to the modifiers

of a subject, instead of to the subject itself—*Each of them have desired it*, should be *Each of them has*, etc., the verb agreeing with *each*, not with *them*; *The coöperation of all American nations are desired*, contains the same error. *He with his friends arrive to-day*, is wrong. *With his friends* is an adjective phrase modifier of *he*, which is subject. *Friends*, also, is in the objective case after a preposition, and therefore cannot be subject—*He with his friends arrives to-day*, is correct.

3. Be careful of punctuation where the sense is doubtful or absurd without it. A verb used intransitively must be separated by a comma from the object of a following transitive verb—*She paints and makes her own dresses*, implies that she paints her dresses. *She paints, and makes her own dresses*, gives the meaning intended, though the repetition of the subject after *and* would be better.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: why the verb is predicate; three kinds of predication; how the scope of the predication is limited; the rule; the verb as adapted to person; to number; to collective nouns; to compound subjects, with special exceptions; punctuation of a noun clause; of compound predicate; of compound sentence; use of comma and semicolon; errors in choice of words; in agreement of verb.

Exercise.

461. Supply omissions of verbs and nouns; analyze; and describe the verbs and their subjects.

1. Histories make men wise; poets, witty; the mathematics, subtle; natural philosophy, deep; morals, grave; logic and rhetoric, able to contend.
2. They appointed a council of state. It consisted of forty-one members; but the council were divided in opinion.
3. Politics has now become a gainful profession, like advocacy, stock-broking, the dry-goods trade, or getting up companies.

4. It was dark and gloomy weather ; there was an eclipse of the sun ; there was a thunder storm, accompanied with tremendous rain ; the frightened birds flew screaming above the soldiers' heads.

462. Correct, supply punctuation where omitted, and parse the verbs and their subjects.

1. He an't scared, for he han't done nothing wrong. You might ha' knowed it wan't him nor me neither.
2. You was mistaken, when you said they was coming.
3. There was tickets for father and mother and the children and all had one. Each got one for themselves.
4. The Italian with the hand organ and a monkey have just been here.
5. When Barnum comes, you shall go and I will go ; indeed I shall go and you will go too.
6. The arrival of a large number of visitors and attendants make it necessary to provide more ample accommodations.
7. He was insulted pelted mounted on a starved pony without saddle or bridle carried out and beheaded.
8. Well people ought to recover from their diseases with ordinary treatment.
9. She came followed by a dog hanging to the arm of her husband.

XLVIII. CONSTRUCTION OF NOUN MODIFIERS.

463. The noun is used in the sentence principally in four relations :

- (1) As subject.
- (2) As object of a verb or preposition.
- (3) As appositive noun.
- (4) As predicate noun.

464. The appositive noun modifier is often rendered more emphatic by the conjunction *as* (§406) or *namely* ;
as,

Cicero as orator was greater than Cicero as statesman.

Two things, namely, manhood and honor, enter into character.

465. The noun as object of a preposition is made, through this connective, to do the work of an adjective or an adverb, and is not a noun modifier.

466. The noun as object of a transitive verb modifies by naming an object to receive the action expressed by the verb, and by particularizing or making definite the predication of the verb (§312). The object noun or pronoun, therefore, must always be in the objective case (§146); and the noun clause, in the same relation, is parsed as in the same case.

467. The object may be compound, two or more nouns or their equivalents forming a series; as,

The storm demolished houses, fences and trees.

468. The double object after some verbs has been explained (§§348, 349). The objective predicate noun must be distinguished from the predicate noun. The latter is a noun or pronoun in the nominative, predicated of the subject; the former is a noun in the objective case, predicated of the object; as,

He was president.

They elected (or made) him president.

469. In cases of two objects, one direct and the other indirect, the noun clause may be the direct object; as,

They asked him whether he would serve as chairman.

470. The noun clause may be abridged by substituting for it the infinitive phrase; as,

They asked him to serve as chairman.

471. The infinitive may be the object of a preposition ; as,
He is about to go = He is about going.

472. The infinitive may take the place of the objective predicate noun, particularly after verbs signifying *to feel, move, make, let* or *have*. In such cases the sign *to* is omitted ; as,

I saw him (to) do it.

I feel it move.

I will have him do it.

PUNCTUATION.

473. The appositive noun, if modified beyond the addition of *the*, is punctuated by commas.

Milton the poet. Milton, the famous poet, was blind.

474. The comma belongs after each member of a compound object, when the conjunction is omitted.

475. Members of compound predicates, not defined by the same object, must be separated by a comma ; as,

He determined to eat, drink, and saddle his horse.

476. The noun clause, as object, is not set off by a comma ; but when used as a subject introduced by the unreal subject *it*, the comma is used ; as,

They said that the time for action had come.

It was said, that the time for action had come.

477. The dash is often used to set off appositives that are particulars, or details, of which the subject is a general name ; as,

The little dogs—Tray, Blanche, and Sweetheart.

It is also used to indicate a lengthened appositive, or the

close of a series of appositives preceding the noun which they modify ; as,

Truth, honesty, moderation, good sense—these are essential qualities.

ERRORS TO BE AVOIDED.

478. Wrong Case.

The use of the nominative for the object of a verb or preposition is incorrect. *Whom did you call?* is right ; *Who did you call?* is wrong, because it makes the nominative *who* object of the verb *call*. *Whom is it for?* = *It is for whom?* is right ; *Who is it for?* = *It is for who?* is wrong, because the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case.

He invited you and I, and *He bought tickets for you and I,* violate the rule, making *I* the object of a verb.

Let's you and I = *Let us, you and I,* is a use of the wrong case in an appositive pronoun. *Us* is object of the verb, and *I,* in apposition, must be in the same case, and hence should be *me* (§330).

479. Wrong Number.

Each answered for themselves ; Any one should watch themselves, are violations of the principle that a pronoun must agree with its antecedent in person and number. The word represented by the pronoun *themselves* is *each*, which is singular ; the pronoun should be in the same number. *Himself* is good English, standing for both sexes, in a general proposition—*Any one should watch himself ; Each answered for himself.*

480. Useless and Wrong Words.

A needless appositive should be avoided—*The weather, it is bad. John, he declines to go.*

The infinitive as object should have the tense that will make sense with the verb of which it is object—*I intended to have gone*, is wrong, because the object of the intention is referred to a time previous to the intention itself. *It would have been better for him to have gone*, contains the same error. *I intended to go*; *It would have been better for him to go*, are correct, because they make sense.

The conjunction *as*, when introducing a clause, prevents the clause from being the direct object of a verb. Therefore avoid using *as* for *that* to introduce an objective noun clause. *I don't see as it makes any difference*, should be, *I don't see that*, etc.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: four relations of the noun; distinction between objective predicate and predicate nouns; the noun clause as one of two objects; how abridged; the infinitive after certain verbs; punctuation of appositives: of compound predicates; of the noun clause; use of dash; errors in case; in number of objective pronoun; useless and wrong words—appositive, wrong tense of infinitive, *as* and *that*.

Exercise.

481. Point out the subjects and predicates, and explain the noun modifiers as appositives, objectives, predicate nouns, etc., and explain punctuation.

1. To catch four balls in succession, in less than a second of time, and deliver them back so as to return with seeming consciousness to the hand again; to make them revolve around him at certain intervals, like the planets in their spheres; to make them chase one another like sparkles of fire, or shoot up like meteors; to throw them behind his back, and twine them round his neck like ribbons, or like serpents—there is something in this to admire.
2. And Robert—poor, kind, generous, wasteful, heedless Robert—what was the end of him?
3. There seems reason to suspect that the Dowager Queen—always a restless and busy woman—had some share in the tutoring of the baker's son.

4. And when he heard of Jesus, he sent unto him the elders of the Jews, beseeching him that he would come and heal his servant.
5. And straightway Jesus constrained his disciples to get into a ship.

482. Correct errors of construction and punctuation, and explain the nouns as modifiers.

1. Who did you refer to ?
2. Each one prepared themselves for a surprise.
3. Let's you and I go fishing.
4. I don't see as I can help it.
5. I should have liked to have gone to the sea-side; indeed I fully intended to have gone.
6. A man is wanted to dig hoe chop and groom a span of horses.

XLIX. CONSTRUCTION OF ADJECTIVE MODIFIERS.

483. In Chapter XX., adjectives are classified. Descriptive adjectives are used as modifiers in four aspects—attributive, appositive, predicate and objective predicate (§358).

Adjective modifiers include, besides adjectives, participles, nouns and pronouns in the possessive case, the relative dependent clause, prepositional phrases modifying nouns and pronouns, and adverbs used as adjectives.

484. The adjectives *worth*, *like*, etc., have peculiar constructions (§422). The adjective *many*, commonly added to a plural noun, has a peculiar use with a singular noun and the definitive adjective *a* ; as,

Full many a gem, etc.

Adjectives do not change their form to indicate number. The definitives *this* and *that*, plural *these*, *those*, are exceptions to this rule (§157).

485. The noun or pronoun in the possessive case may be

an adjective modifier of a noun denoting a different thing (§366).

The apostrophe with the possessive has a proper and an improper use (§147).

The possessive is often used when the modified word is omitted ; as,

The book is John's.

The book is his (book).

It was obtained at Smith's the bookseller's (store).

486. The predicate adjective is used to assert a quality of the subject, and is classed as an adjective modifier, though in many constructions it inclines to an adverbial idea, expressing manner, condition, etc.

The apple is ripe.

This asserts a quality as a fact ; *ripely* is neither proper nor intended.

I feel cheerful.

This asserts a condition, with an adverbial significance.

487. Several adjectives may modify the same noun, in which case the modifier that adds the idea of a class should stand next to the noun ; as,

A fine gold watch.

Good, strong, hardy, black horses.

Here *black* distinguishes a class of horses, and *good*, etc., describe qualities of some of the class.

488. A series of attributive or appositive adjectives is arranged most effectively when following the order of their length ; as,

A wide, varied, beautiful landscape ; not,

A beautiful, varied, wide landscape.

489. The prepositional phrase, as adjective modifier, is often used with a noun in apposition, instead of the same noun as predicate noun ; as,

A man named Smith = A man, Smith by name, or of the name of Smith.

The latter is better usage.

A man, a carpenter by trade = A carpenter in respect to trade.

490. The dependent relative clause, as adjective modifier, must be connected, with the word modified, by a relative agreeing with its antecedent in **gender, number and person.**

The man who is faithful. The horse which is strong.

That may be used in either case, since it is without gender.

491. The definitive adjectives *this, that*, and their plurals, are more properly followed by the relative *that* than by *who* or *which* ; as,

This book that (not which) I hold in my hand.

Two successive relatives should be of the same kind ; as,

This is the rat that ate the malt that (not which) lay in the house that Jack built.

492. The comparative degree of adjectives is proper where two things are compared ; the superlative, where more than two are compared ; as,

He is the taller of the two.

She is the brightest of all.

493. Phrases and clauses, as modifiers, should be placed near the words which they modify, to avoid ambiguity.

The house on the hill is beautiful.

This means one thing.

The house is beautiful on the hill.

This means something different.

The place is shown where he fell.

This has a different meaning from,

The place where he fell is shown.

PUNCTUATION.

494. A succession of adjective modifiers should be punctuated by commas, except where conjunctions are used ; as,

A good, gentle, swift and useful horse.

495. Appositive adjectives are set off by commas from the words which they modify. A single attributive adjective is not so separated ; as,

The little boy, nimble and bright, carried the message.

496. An adjective clause connected by a relative is set off by commas when it explains or describes, but is not so separated when it merely defines ; as,

Michael Angelo, who was the greatest of sculptors, died in 1562.

The man that was taken sick is well.

497. In a series of prepositional phrases connected by the same preposition, and either adjective or adverbial modifiers of the same word, the preposition is usually expressed but once, commas being used in its place ; as,

The teeth of dogs, cats, foxes, wolves, and wild-cats indicate carnivorous habits.

ERRORS TO BE AVOIDED.

498. Wrong Words.

1. It is incorrect to say, *them apples*, because *them* is not an adjective, and is in the objective case, thus involving the violation of two principles. *Those apples*, is correct.

2. It is incorrect to say, *these kind* or *those kind*, because the adjectives are in the plural, while the nouns which they are made to modify are in the singular. Either *this kind* or *these kinds* is correct. The addition of *here* or *there* contracted to *'ere*—*this 'ere* or *that 'ere*—is to be avoided.

3. The apostrophe should not be omitted where it belongs, or used where it does not belong. *A boys hat*, *a boys' hat*, should be, *a boy's hat*. *Its* is a possessive pronoun, without an apostrophe. *It's* is incorrect.

4. The possessive pronouns need no addition of any other adjective to make their meaning complete. *His own* and *her own*, contracted to *his'n* and *her'n* are bad English.

5. Avoid an adverb in the place of an adjective—*I feel bad*, not *badly*; *The air seems cold*, not *coldly*.

6. The use of inappropriate adjectives should be avoided. To speak of Niagara Falls as *'cute*, of a flower as *awful pretty*, of a piece of cake as *gorgeous*, or of a dish of mashed potatoes as *elegant*, is to degrade the language.

7. Avoid the use of the comparative degree when more than two are compared, and the use of the superlative when only two are compared—*Of the three sisters she is the most intellectual*, not *more intellectual*; *Of the two brothers he is the taller*, not the *tallest*.

8. The conjunction *that* instead of the conjunctive adverb *why*, as a relative connecting a dependent clause, is incorrect. *The reason that I refused to go*, should be, *The reason why* (for which) *I refused to go*.

499. Wrong Arrangement.

The separation of adjective modifiers from the words which they modify should be guarded against—*He came to see me having a bad cold.* Who had the *bad cold*? *Having a bad cold, he*—or *He, having a bad cold, came to see me,* removes the ambiguity.

Be careful to punctuate an adjective where ambiguity may arise. *Good John Blank the notorious thief has been caught,* needs an exclamation point in the proper place—*Good! John Blank,* etc.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the general classification of adjectives; the four uses of descriptive adjectives as modifiers; peculiar construction of *worth, like, many*; change of form to denote number; the use of the apostrophe; two phases of the predicate adjective, with examples; arrangement of a series of adjectives; the prepositional phrase modifying an appositive; rule for the connective of a relative adjective clause; the proper relative after a definitive adjective; two successive relatives; location of phrase and clause modifiers; punctuation of adjectives—four cases; errors of words—*them, these, 'ere*; apostrophe wrongly used and omitted; useless adjective with possessive; misuse of adverb; inappropriate adjectives; of degrees; wrong arrangement; neglect of punctuation.

Exercise.
500. Analyze, and explain the adjective modifiers.

1. Fragments of plates from which they ate, of goblets from which they drank, and of pavement on which they trod, are discovered among the earth that is broken by the plow, or the dust that is crumbled by the gardener's spade. Wells that the Romans sunk still yield water; roads that the Romans made form part of our highways.
2. As great and good in peace, as he was great and good in war, King Alfred never rested from his labors to improve his people.
3. Full many a gem of purest ray serene,
The dark, unfathomed caves of ocean bear.

501. Correct, in language and punctuation, and explain the relations of the adjective modifiers.

1. Them pictnres look very finely.
2. Those kind of flowers smell more sweetly than these kind.
3. Its a pity that the bird has lost it's mate.
4. A flock of independent, troublesome, black, noisy birds has lighted on the field.
5. The apples look ripely, but they taste greenly; anyhow, they don't taste good.
6. A man was killed by a railroad car running into Boston supposed to be deaf.
7. This hotel will be kept by the widow of the former landlord Mr. Brown who died last summer on an improved plan.
8. Board may be had at No. 4, Pearl Street for two gentlemen with fire.
9. Sturdy men and children playing at hide and seek with women caressing infants enlivened the scene.
10. Wanted a saddle horse for a lady weighing 950 pounds.
11. The reason that he was absent from the meeting he refuses to give.
12. I got an elegant steak at the restaurant last night. The ice-cream, too, was perfectly magnificent, and the cake was gorgeous.

L. CONSTRUCTION OF ADVERBIAL MODIFIERS.

502. Besides single adverbs, qualifying verbs, adjectives and adverbs, we have often adverbial modifiers in **nouns**, **prepositions**, **prepositional phrases**, **infinitive** and **participial phrases**, **noun clauses**, and **dependent clauses** joined by conjunctive adverbs.

1. Good usage recognizes the noun, in some constructions, as an adverb, without a preposition understood.

He came home.

Here the noun *home* is an adverb modifier of the verb *came*, pointing out where he came.

The journey extended six miles.

The noun *miles* is an adverb modifier of the intransitive verb, adding the idea of measure.

Three times two are six.

The noun *times* is adverb modifier of the participle *taken*, omitted = *Two taken three times are six.*

2. The adverb is sometimes used in a loose, or absolute way ; as,

Briefly (or *to be brief*), *the candidate entered, was introduced, and retired.*

To be sure, you may go, if you like.

3. The noun **absolute** construction adds an adverbial idea ; as,

Night coming on, they encamped = *When night came on*, etc.

4. A **noun-clause** may be an adverbial modifier of an intransitive verb ; as,

He came, that he might inspect the premises = the *purpose* for which he came.

The infinitive or participial phrase may be in the same adverbial construction ; as,

He came to inspect the premises. He came inspecting the premises.

5. A sentence or clause may be changed into an adverbial modifier, by prefixing a conjunctive adverb or a subordinate conjunction ; as,

The shepherds watched their flocks by night.

This sentence connected by *while* with an independent clause might be :

The stars shone while the shepherds, etc.

Connected by a conjunction, it would be :

The stars shone as the shepherds, etc.

503. The construction of the adverbs *rather* and *as lief*, with the infinitive, dispenses with the sign *to* ; as,

I would rather (to) walk than (to) ride.

Here the infinitive is the object of the verb *would* used subjunctively, and *rather—than*, with the following clause, is an adverbial modifier of the verb. The meaning is,

I would choose to walk rather than to ride (if I had the choice).

504. Adverbial modifiers should be so placed as to leave no doubt as to the parts of the sentence which they modify.

The arrival of Mr. Blank at New York is announced.

This means that *Mr. Blank's arrival at New York* is announced.

The arrival of Mr. Blank is announced at New York.

This means that Mr. Blank's arrival has been *announced at New York*. Where he arrived is not stated. In the one case, the phrase *at New York* is an **adjective** modifier of a **noun** ; in the other case, an **adverb** modifier of a **verb**.

505. Adverbs are usually placed before the adjectives which they modify, and either before or after the verbs to which they are added. When it is desired to emphasize the idea of the adverb, it precedes the verb and the subject ; as,

Freely ye have received ; freely give.

The phrase or clause thus preceding the verb and subject, as adverbial modifiers, is said to be **inverted** (§399) ; as,

Amid the luxuriant verdure and tropical warmth of Brazil, myriads of butterflies abound.

PUNCTUATION.

506. The individuals of a series of adverbs should be pointed off by commas ; as,

Quickly, earnestly, cheerfully, he obeyed.

507. An adverb loosely, or independently used, is pointed off with a comma ; as,

Yes, it must be so.

However, it may be so ; or,

It may, however, be so.

508. An adverb clause closely limiting or restricting the meaning of a verb is not pointed off by a comma ; as,

She flew as swiftly as a bird flies.

More loosely joined as a modifier, the adverb clause is set off by commas ; as,

She flew, while her pursuer followed closely, and made her escape.

509. The inverted clause or phrase is pointed off by a comma, when it is extended, or modifies the main thought ; as,

While her pursuers followed closely, she flew and made her escape.

Fully equipped, he started with the first break of dawn.

 ERRORS TO BE AVOIDED.
510. Wrong Words.

1. An adjective should not be used for an adverb, to modify a verb. *He did it good*, is incorrect ; *He did it well*, is correct. *He acts noble*, should be, *He acts nobly*.

The predicate adjective with an adverbial force is used only after a certain class of verbs—*He feels cold*.

2. A statement should not contradict itself by the use of a negative adverb—*I can't never do it = I can not never do it = I can do it*. *I can never do it*, is the correct form of words, and means what is intended.

3. Be careful to use appropriate prepositions with phrase modifiers—*The products of a country consist of* (not *consist in*) *corn, tobacco*, etc. *Between* is proper with two objects ; *among* with more than two.

4. The uses of *by* and *with* are not so easily distinguished. *By* denotes cause, *with* denotes instrument—*He killed his enemy with a sword* = the instrument used ; *The man died by violence* = the cause of his death.

5. The preposition *from* should not be used with the verb *differ* to express difference of opinion ; nor should *with* be used with this verb to express simple unlikeness. The proper use is, *The men differed from one another in nationality, and differed with one another in opinions*.

511. Wrong Arrangement.

An adverbial modifier should be so placed in the sentence that its construction is not doubtful—*A man was killed by a railroad car going into Boston*. Here all the words following *killed* constitute, by their arrangement, an adverbial modifier of the verb, whereas *going into Boston* is intended to be an adjective modifier of *man*. The car might have been going *from* Boston. Properly arranged, the sentence is, *A man going into Boston was killed by a railroad car*.

The infinitive should not be separated from its sign to by inserting an adverb. *He was ordered to immediately depart*, should be, *He was ordered immediately to depart* ; or better, *to depart immediately*.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the kinds of adverbial modifiers, and what ideas they add; the noun as an adverb, with examples; the adverb and noun absolute; noun clause and how changed; *rather* and *as lief*; arrangement of adverb modifiers; four cases of punctuation; errors in choice of words; different uses of *by*, *with*, *from*; two cases of wrong arrangement.

Exercise.

512. Analyze; point out and explain the adverbial modifiers and their punctuation.

1. When the king heard of this black deed, in his grief and rage, he declared relentless war against the Barons, and both sides were in arms for half a year.
2. Faster and fiercer, after this, the king went on in his career.
3. It was in the month of July, in the year one thousand three hundred and forty-six, when the king embarked at Southampton for France, with an army of about thirty thousand men in all, attended by the Prince of Wales and by several of the chief nobles.
4. Money being, in his position, the next thing to men, King John spared no means of getting it.
5. Up came the French king with all his great force.
6. Bad deeds seldom prosper, happily for mankind.
7. One star differeth (differs) from another star in glory.
8. I had rather be a doorkeeper in the house of the Lord than to dwell in the tents of wickedness.
9. Where the lamps quiver
So far in the river,
With many a light
From window and casement,
From garret to basement,
She stood, with amazement,
Houseless by night.
10. Those cherries fairly do enclose
Of orient pearls a double row,
Which, when her lovely laughter shows,
Do look like rose-buds fill'd with snow.

513. Correct the language, arrangement and punctuation, and explain the corrections.

1. Those who have tickets are only admitted. Tickets twenty-five cents; children half price to be had at the office.
2. Gentlemen, make yourselves to home.
3. Listen at me: Don't never do such a thing again.
4. She looks awful pretty.
5. I think a heap of that fellow.
6. He came mighty near being killed.
7. The procession was very fine and nearly two miles long as was also the speech of the chairman.

LI. CONSTRUCTION OF CONNECTIVES.

514. The general relations of connecting words have been learned (§327). The principles that govern their construction must now be reviewed.

There are two parts of speech whose office is to connect words, clauses and sentences. These are the **preposition** and the **conjunction**.

There are other kinds of words which, while performing their office as particular parts of speech, serve also as connecting words in certain relations. These are relative, or **conjunctive pronouns** and **conjunctive adverbs** (§§135, 240).

515. The verb *to be* is a connective, joining a subject and some other word or words describing or explaining the subject. As such, it is called the **copula**, because it couples or joins a subject and a predicate word ; as,

Man is mortal.

This construction, however, has been learned as that of the predicate noun and predicate adjective, the verb being regarded as the real, though incomplete, predicate.

516. We have seen that a word may be joined by a preposition to a noun in such a way as to change the office of the noun to that of an adjective or an adverb. Thus the preposition becomes a part of a phrase modifier, while it connects with a modified word. An adverb is often used as the object of a preposition, in the same way as a noun; as,

from whence, from where.

517. The coördinate conjunctions join words of the same rank or construction, such as the members of compound subjects, predicates and objects, and the clauses of compound sentences. The correlatives connect by placing one of the pair before one of the parts connected, and the other between the parts; as,

Neither he nor I.

Here *he* and *I* are joined by *neither—nor*, *neither* introducing the connected words.

518. Neither the preposition nor the coördinate conjunction has any effect to subordinate one part of a sentence to another. The other connecting words differ from the preposition in determining the relations of clauses as **principal** and **subordinate**, **independent** and **dependent**.

519. The subordinate conjunctions (§261) connect the verb of one clause with the verb of another clause in such a way that the latter clause depends upon the former clause for its own meaning, and at the same time is subordinated as an adverbial modifier of a verb in the former clause.

He would succeed if he were industrious.

Here the conjunction *if* connects the two clauses, and subordinates *he were industrious* to *He would succeed*, as an adverbial modifier of *succeed*.

The conjunctive *but*, classed as a coördinate conjunction, is in rare instances used with an apparently subordinate force.

There is not one but has some faults.

Here *but* is equivalent to *that not*, and the sentence means,

There is not one that has not some faults.

520. The conjunctive, or relative pronoun performs a double office in the complex sentence.

The man who was here has left.

The bird which you saw has flown.

In these sentences, *who* and *which* are pronouns whose antecedents are *man* and *bird*. *Who* is also subject of *has left*, and *which* is object of *saw*. But both pronouns subordinate the clauses they introduce by making them adjective modifiers of nouns, while they serve as connectives between these nouns and the clauses of which they are parts.

521. The conjunctive adverb is at once an adverb modifier of the verb in an independent clause and of the verb in the dependent clause which it introduces. It thus connects the two clauses, while it subordinates the latter to the former as an adverbial modifier.

He lay where he fell.

In this sentence *where* modifies both verbs, and connects the clause which it introduces, subordinating it as an adverbial modifier to the verb *lay*.

He came to where the man fell.

He knew not whether it was a man.

In these constructions, the adverb and the conjunction introducing the dependent clauses lose their force as subordinating connectives. *Where the man fell* is the immediate object of the preposition *to*, which is the connective, and

with the clause becomes an adverbial modifier of *came*. *Whether it was a man* is a noun clause, and the direct object of *knew*.

ERRORS TO BE AVOIDED.

522. Wrong Words and Wrong Arrangement.

1. The correlative conjunctions (§258) must be used in their proper relations as pairs, without mixing them with other pairs. *Neither he or I have time*, should be, *Neither he nor I*, etc.

2. The subordinate correlative *as—as* should not be made *as—than*. *He was as great a man, and even greater than his brother*, violates this rule. A better expression is *He was as great a man as (his brother) and even greater than his brother*. But this is a bad arrangement, and the abbreviation is in the wrong place. *He was as great a man as his brother (was), and even greater (than his brother was)*, is the best order.

3. In *He is more distinguished as a writer than (he is distinguished) as a speaker*, the word *as* is an appositive conjunction (§406), and the abbreviation after *than* is correct.

4. Avoid using *as* for *than* after the comparative degree—*He was taller, but not so large as his brother*. Here the conjunction *than* belongs after *taller*, and the abbreviation should be after *large*—*He was taller than his brother, but not so large (as his brother was)*.

5. Avoid the use of *if* for *whether*. *I do not know if it be so*, should be, *I do not know whether it be so*, or *whether it is so*.

6. Avoid *but, but that*, instead of the simple conjunction *that*—*I doubt not but he may come*, for *that he may come*; *I doubt not but that he is honest*, for *that he is honest*.

7. Remember, in using the subordinating connectives, that the pronoun must do correct work as a pronoun as well as that of a connecting word. *I have known people which lived in huts*, is wrong, because *which* does not conform to the gender of its antecedent. In *I have known people where they lived in huts*, an adverb is incorrectly used as a relative pronoun.

8. The use of *and* for *to* of the infinitive is wrong. *Try and think*, should be, *Try to think*.

SYNOPSIS.—Explain: the general relations of connecting words; of preposition and conjunction; of other connectives; *to be*; coördinate conjunction; difference between the force of preposition and conjunction as compared with other connectives; special use of *but*; double office of relative; the conjunctive adverb; errors in correlatives; in the use of *as* and *than*; in use of *if*; of *but* and *but that*; adverb for relative; *and* for *to*.

Exercise.

523. Correct the errors and explain the construction.

1. Neither refuse or neglect to do right in all things.
2. One of them is equally blamable as the other.
3. There is no condition so secure as cannot admit of change.
4. Be ready to aid such persons who need aid.
5. He gained nothing further but to be commended.
6. Italy desires the same blessing as France has obtained.
7. He was not so large, but taller than his brother.
8. I am not certain if he be the man I saw or not.
9. His residence is on Race Street, and his business on Third Street.
10. The indolent child is one that has a strong aversion from action of any sort.
11. There are people where the houses are built in the sides of cliffs.
12. They are like so many puppets who are moved by wires.
13. Try and correct your bad habits.
14. The more important rules, definitions and observations, and which are therefore the most proper to be committed to memory, are printed with a larger type.

PROSE COMPOSITION.

524. Composition is the practical application of the rules of grammar. As we have seen, correct usage is not a result of grammatical regulation; on the contrary, grammar is but a systematic record of existing usage. Written English presupposes familiarity with :

1. The mechanical requirements of orthography, punctuation, the use of capitals, etc., and
2. The simple grammatical relations of agreement and dependence.

These have been set forth in the preceding pages.

525. In its best forms English prose composition represents thought (1) correctly, (2) in an orderly manner, and (3) agreeably.

Just as the sentence is the unit of speech, so it is also the unit of thought; a sentence being but the expression of a complete thought, or of what is called in logic a proposition. To any form of discourse a series of thoughts, and therefore a series of sentences, are necessary; hence, prose composition naturally divides itself into

1. **The composition of the sentence,** and
2. **Composition in series.**

 LII. COMPOSITION OF THE SENTENCE.

526. The sentence requires (1) accuracy of expression, and admits of (2) variety of expression. **Accuracy of expression** is most commonly violated by:

1. **Tautology,** or the needless repetition of the same meaning in different words;
2. **Improper ellipsis;**

3. **Confusion** of words derived from the same origin, but differing in signification.

4. **Ambiguity**, or such choice or arrangement of words as leaves the meaning doubtful.

Exercise.

527. In each of the following sentences, point out the words that are tautological. Tell why these words should be omitted.

1. "Let observation, with extended view,
Survey mankind from China to Peru."
2. Every one of them all was present.
3. Columbus was a bold sailor and navigator.
4. He walked from Buffalo to Albany on foot.
5. They reclined in the umbrageous shade.
6. The vanquished enemy were conquered and subdued.
7. I shall never again repeat what I have already said heretofore.
8. Our ancestors, who preceded us, were anxious for the welfare of their descendants, who were to follow them.
9. The landscape, as far as the eye can reach, is covered all over with snow.
10. "The dawn is overcast, the morning lowers,
And heavily in clouds brings on the day."
11. Arnold was universally shunned by all men.
12. The trees furnish us with shade in summer, and supply us with fuel in winter.
13. The reason of his absence was on account of illness.
14. He inherited the property by a bequest in the will of his deceased father, who was no more.
15. He divided his property equally between his two sons, both sharing alike.
16. The thirteen colonies united together in one common government.
17. This was the first beginning of the American Union.
18. The plaintiff, Mrs. Bardell, was a widow, whose husband was dead.

19. Do not use needless and superfluous words when you speak orally.
20. Both Cæsar and Cassius swam together in the Tiber at the same time.
21. "Milton! thou shouldst be living at this hour!
O, raise us up! Return to us again!"
22. Every bank check should always be indorsed upon the back.
23. "Is life so dear as to be purchased at the price of chains and slavery?"
24. "Shall we resort to entreaty and supplication?"
25. "Shall we acquire the means of effectual resistance by lying supinely on our backs?"
26. At the end of long years of labor the work was finally terminated.
27. Words having nearly the same meaning are called synonyms, and differ but slightly in signification.

Exercise.

528. Reconstruct each of the following sentences by supplying the improper ellipses. Tell why the omissions are improper.

1. He drove a span consisting of one white and black horse.
2. The rich and poor are concerned in good government.
3. Our language is deserving special study.
4. He was greater as a poet than a philosopher.
5. We have never, and do not now, believe it.
6. Knowledge comes to us mainly through the eye and ear.
7. It was he said so.
8. Be careful what you do and leave undone.
9. The sensation of hunger is less distressing than of thirst.
10. The very young and old need affectionate care.
11. She was more devoted as a mother than a daughter.
12. He does not and never has offered it.
13. He had a new and old suit.
14. The good and bad plums should not be placed together.
15. The book is worthy special mention.
16. It was your sister told me to do it.

Exercise.

529. Write sentences to show the correct use of each word of the following pairs. Consult *Webster's Dictionary*.

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. adherence, adhesion | 15. imperial, imperious |
| 2. affect, effect | 16. ingenious, ingenuous |
| 3. completion, completeness | 17. luxuriant, luxurious |
| 4. complex, complicated | 18. momentous, momentary |
| 5. contemptible, contemptuous | 19. negligence, neglect |
| 6. consequent, consequential | 20. noted, notorious |
| 7. declension, declination | 21. observance, observation |
| 8. detract, distract | 22. occupation, occupancy |
| 9. duplication, duplicity | 23. opposite, apposite |
| 10. except, accept | 24. popular, populous |
| 11. expectation, expectancy | 25. prevision, provision |
| 12. human, humane | 26. principal, principle |
| 13. illusion, delusion | 27. remission, remittance |
| 14. immigrant, emigrant | 28. sensible, sensitive |

Exercise.

530. Write sentences to show the correct use of each word of the following pairs :

- | | |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. accessory, accessary | 10. healthy, healthful |
| 2. admission, admittance | 11. honorable, honorary |
| 3. captivation, captivity | 12. industrious, industrial |
| 4. commander, commandant | 13. informer, informant |
| 5. complementary, complimentary | 14. necessary, necessitous |
| 6. confident, confidant | 15. reverse, converse |
| 7. council, counsel | 16. sanitary, sanatory |
| 8. depository, depositary | 17. stationary, stationery |
| 9. difference, deference | 18. womanly, womanish |

Exercise.

531. Correct the ambiguities in the following sentences. Give reasons for your corrections.

1. This paper has the largest circulation in the United States.
2. I have been anxious to see you for a long time.

3. I can only study in the evening.
4. We hoped you would come every hour since morning.
5. I have never visited one of the countries of Europe.
6. The soldiers only carried three days' rations.
7. The past is at least secure.
8. A narrow track of firm ground only rose above the quagmire.
9. The wheeled carriages were pulled by oxen in this district.
10. The rich traveled commonly in their own carriages.
11. I do not remember one thing that happened.
12. I retained only the habit of expressing myself in tones of diffidence.
13. The unfortunate workman nearly fell thirty feet.
14. He bequeathed to his brother the house he lived in.
15. Henry desired nothing less than to be king.
16. The general told his aide that he was ignorant of the art of war.
17. He took leave of his friend in a happy frame of mind.
18. The queen's sister died while she was absent from the capital.
19. Please tell me how old Mr. Johnson is.

532. Variety of expression may be secured (1) by verbal changes; (2) by structural changes.

The principal types of **verbal change** to produce variety of expression are :

1. The use of **synonyms**.
2. **Circumlocution**, or the expansion of words into groups of words having the same meaning.
3. The change of an affirmation into the **denial of its contrary**.
4. **Paraphrase**, or the rewriting of a passage or a selection, that is compact or difficult, in order to render it fuller, or simpler, or both.

Exercise.

533. Exact synonyms are extremely rare in our language. Words that are so called merely approximate more or less

closely to one another in their meanings. From the following list of words select pairs of synonyms :

abstain	chatter	haul	slumber
admit	concede	jabber	sparkle
annoy	courage	load	ardent
blemish	custom	margin	spruce
border	drag	refrain	star
bravery	eager	rub	stir
bulk	glitter	seize	tarnish
burden	grasp	size	torment
chafe	habit	sleep	trim

Exercise.

534. In the following list find two synonyms for each of the nouns in the first column :

<i>answer</i>	antipathy	hinderance
<i>avarice</i>	aspersion	impediment
<i>beholder</i>	aversion	indigence
<i>celerity</i>	behavior	observer
<i>decency</i>	calumny	penury
<i>deportment</i>	consequence	propriety
<i>dislike</i>	cupidity	rapidity
<i>effect</i>	covetousness	reply
<i>joy</i>	decorum	response
<i>obstacle</i>	delight	result
<i>poverty</i>	demeanor	spectator
<i>slander</i>	gladness	swiftness

Exercise.

535. In the following list of words find two synonyms for each of the nouns in the first column :

<i>behavior</i>	ball	demeanor
<i>beholder</i>	bliss	ecstasy
<i>bundle</i>	chronicle	educator
<i>class</i>	conduct	enjoyment

<i>commerce</i>	era	package
<i>epoch</i>	globe	period
<i>fame</i>	glory	pupil
<i>joy</i>	grade	rank
<i>king</i>	happiness	renown
<i>narrative</i>	history	riches
<i>pleasure</i>	instructor	sailor
<i>probity</i>	integrity	sight
<i>scene</i>	labor	smell
<i>scent</i>	learner	sovereign
<i>scholar</i>	mariner	spectator
<i>seaman</i>	monarch	trade
<i>sphere</i>	odor	traffic
<i>teacher</i>	onlooker	uprightness
<i>toil</i>	opulence	view
<i>wealth</i>	parcel	work

Exercise.

536. In the following list of words find two synonyms for each of the adjectives in the first column. Rearrange the list accordingly.

<i>capable</i>	accountable	lasting
<i>cautious</i>	adroit	manifest
<i>concise</i>	answerable	obstinate
<i>durable</i>	avaricious	obvious
<i>evident</i>	careful	opportune
<i>fearless</i>	circumspect	parsimonious
<i>miserly</i>	competent	permanent
<i>polite</i>	contemptuous	precious
<i>relentless</i>	costly	qualified
<i>resentful</i>	courteous	revengeful
<i>responsible</i>	disdainful	seasonable
<i>scornful</i>	expert	succinct
<i>skillful</i>	headstrong	terse
<i>stubborn</i>	implacable	urbane
<i>timely</i>	intrepid	valorous
<i>valuable</i>	inexorable	vindictive

Exercise.

537. The following list of adjectives consists of ten sets of three synonyms each. Rearrange accordingly. Consult *Webster's Dictionary*, and give an oral explanation of the different shades of meaning.

abundant	fretful	precise
accurate	frivolous	querulous
adroit	garrulous	requisite
careful	loquacious	skillful
cautious	manifest	talkative
copious	miserable	trifling
essential	necessary	trivial
evident	obvious	unhappy
exact	peevish	wary
expert	plentiful	wretched

Exercise.

538. Arrange the verbs in the following list in sets of three synonyms each :

<i>abhor</i>	abominate	excel
<i>accede</i>	acquiesce	exile
<i>attack</i>	admonish	expatriate
<i>baffle</i>	applaud	frustrate
<i>banish</i>	assail	hearken
<i>begin</i>	assault	hide
<i>caution</i>	balk	implore
<i>contrive</i>	beseech	initiate
<i>entreat</i>	chide	interdict
<i>flourish</i>	commence	invent
<i>forbid</i>	commend	listen
<i>foretell</i>	comply	obstruct
<i>furnish</i>	conceal	outdo
<i>hear</i>	debilitate	predict
<i>hinder</i>	detest	prevent
<i>praise</i>	devise	prognosticate
<i>reprove</i>	enfeeble	prohibit

<i>secrete</i>	prosper	supply
<i>surpass</i>	provide	thrive
<i>weaken</i>	rebuke	warn

Exercise.

539. Arrange the following verbs in sets of three synonyms each. Use each word in a written sentence.

adorn	embellish	resist
articulate	excel	subdue
ascribe	finish	supply
attribute	furnish	surpass
allow	impute	terminate
alter	oppose	tolerate
change	outdo	utter
conquer	permit	vanquish
decorate	pronounce	vary
end	provide	withstand

Exercise.

540. Rewrite the following sentences. Expand each word in *Italics* into a phrase of equivalent meaning, supplying ellipses wherever necessary.

1. Histories make men wise ; *poets, witty* ; the mathematics, *subtle* ; natural philosophy, *deep* ; *morals*, grave ; logic and rhetoric, able to contend.
2. " Who would not mourn for Lycidas ? *He knew Himself to sing.*"
3. *Nothing venture, nothing have.*
4. *Up*, guards, and *at* them !
5. *Faithful* are the *wounds* of a friend.
6. *Hopeless and helpless* doth Ægeon wend.
7. It is vain, sir, *to extenuate* the matter.
8. I deny not that it is of the greatest concernment *in the church and commonwealth*, to have a vigilant eye *how books demean themselves*, as well as men.

9. *How sleeps the moonlight* on this bank !
10. Coming events *cast their shadows before*.
11. *Sweet are the uses* of adversity.
12. No man *had ever a point of pride* that was not injurious to him.

Exercise.

541. Change the affirmation in each of the following sentences into a **denial of the contrary**; thus,

Affirmation He *is* a very *disagreeable* person.

Denial of Contrary He *is not* a very *agreeable* person.

1. Milton was the greatest of English poets.
2. Cæsar was ambitious.
3. I am willing to comply with your request.
4. Though advanced in years, he was active in his movements.
5. The bravest spirit has moments of depression.
6. Though a stranger to polite usage, his manners were pleasing.
7. Few achieve eminence in art.
8. Jefferson was more patriotic than Hamilton.
9. The greatest excellence of Bunyan and DeFoe is their use of simple and familiar English.
10. Johnson and Gibbon wrote a sonorous Latin-English that has many attractions to commend it.
11. The fire spread over a large tract of land.
12. A miser grows rich by seeming poor.

542. In the work of paraphrasing a selection, the pupils should—

1. Study carefully the thought of the selection as a whole.
2. Study the individual expressions, to obtain the meaning of each from its use in the selection. This work should be made to include a consideration of everything in the selection which will in any way affect the meaning of the expression under consideration.

This will enable the pupil in almost every case to make

a change in the expression of the idea from his comprehension of the thought itself.

The dictionary should be consulted only after every effort has been made to vary the expression by means of the pupil's own thought.

3. Write the selection, making the changes decided upon.

After the paraphrase has been completed, it should be compared carefully with the original in order to show the superiority of the latter as to

1. Clearness.
2. Elegance.
3. Force.

Exercise.

543. *Paraphrase*, in simpler language, the following passage from Johnson's *Rasselas* :

The valley, wide and fruitful, supplied its inhabitants with the necessaries of life ; and all delights and superfluities were added at the annual visit which the emperor paid his children, when the iron gate was opened to the sound of music ; and during eight days every one that resided in the valley was required to propose whatever might contribute to make seclusion pleasant, to fill up the vacancies of attention, and lessen the tediousness of time. Every desire was immediately granted.

All the artificers of pleasure were called to gladden the festivity ; the musicians exerted the power of harmony, and the dancers showed their activity before the princes, in hope that they should pass their lives in this blissful captivity, to which those only were admitted whose performance was thought able to add novelty to luxury. Such was the appearance of security and delight which this retirement afforded, that they to whom it was new always desired that it might be perpetual ; and as those on whom the iron gate had once closed were never suffered to return, the effect of long experience could not be known. Thus every year produced new schemes of delight, and new competitors for imprisonment.

Exercise.

544. *Paraphrase* the following passage from Gibbon, according to the directions given in §542.

The obvious causes of their freedom are inscribed on the character and country of the Arabs. Many ages before Mahomet, their intrepid valor had been severely felt by their neighbors, in offensive and defensive war. The patient and active virtues of a soldier are insensibly nursed in the habits and discipline of a pastoral life. The care of the sheep and camels is abandoned to the women of the tribe; but the martial youth, under the banner of the emir, is ever on horseback, and in the field, to practice the exercise of the bow, the javelin, and the scimiter. The long memory of their independence is the firmest pledge of its perpetuity, and succeeding generations are animated to prove their descent, and to maintain their inheritance.

In the more simple state of the Arabs, the nation is free because each of her sons disdains a base submission to the will of a master. His breast is fortified with the austere virtues of courage, patience, and sobriety; the love of independence prompts him to exercise the habits of self-command; and the fear of dishonor guards him from the meaner apprehension of pain, of danger, and of death. The gravity and firmness of the mind is conspicuous in his outward demeanor: his speech is slow, weighty, and concise; he is seldom provoked to laughter; his only gesture is that of stroking his beard, the venerable symbol of manhood; and the sense of his own importance teaches him to accost his equals without levity, and his superiors without awe.

Exercise.

545. *Paraphrase* the following extract from Bacon in fuller and simpler language :

Studies serve for delight, for ornament, and for ability. Their chief use for delight is in the quiet of private life; for ornament, is in discourse; and for ability, is in the judgment, and disposition of business; for expert men can execute, and perhaps judge of particulars, one by one; but the general counsels, and the plots and marshaling of affairs, come best from those that are learned.

To spend too much time in studies, is sloth; to use too much for orna-

ment, is affectation; to make judgment wholly by their rules, is the humor of a scholar: they perfect nature, and are perfected by experience; for natural abilities are like natural plants, that need pruning by study; and studies themselves do give forth directions too much at large, except they be bounded in by experience.

Crafty men contemn studies; simple men admire them; and wise men use them: for they teach not their own use, but that there is a wisdom without them, and above them, won by observation. Read not to contradict and to confute, nor to believe and take for granted, nor to find talk and discourse, but to weigh and consider.

Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested;—that is, some books are to be read only in parts; others to be read, but not curiously; and some few to be read wholly, and with diligence and attention. Some books may be read by deputy, and extracts made of them by others; but that would be only in less important arguments, and the meaner sort of books; else distilled books are, like common distilled waters, flashy things.

Exercise.

546. *Paraphrase* the following selection from *Hamlet*, supplying ellipses, and making clear any unfamiliar words or phrases :

A FATHER'S ADVICE TO HIS SON.

Give thy thoughts no tongue,
 Nor any unproportioned thought his act.
 Be thou familiar, but by no means vulgar.
 The friends thou hast, and their adoption tried,
 Grapple them to thy soul with hooks of steel;
 But do not dull thy palm with entertainment
 Of each new-hatched, unfledged comrade. Beware
 Of entrance to a quarrel; but, being in,
 Bear it, that the opposer may beware of thee.
 Give every man thine ear, but few thy voice;
 Take each man's censure, but reserve thy judgment.
 Costly thy habit as thy purse can buy,
 But not expressed in fancy; rich, not gaudy;
 For the apparel oft proclaims the man. . . .

Neither a borrower nor a lender be;
 For loan oft loses both itself and friend;
 And borrowing dulls the edge of husbandry.
 This above all,—to thine own self be true;
 And it must follow, as the night the day,
 Thou canst not then be false to any man.

Exercise.

547. *Paraphrase* the following poem of Pope, by supplying ellipses, and by amplifying wherever amplification will make the meaning more obvious :

THE QUIET LIFE.

Happy the man, whose wish and care
 A few paternal acres bound,
 Content to breathe his native air
 In his own ground.

Whose herds with milk, whose fields with bread,
 Whose flocks supply him with attire;
 Whose trees in summer yield him shade,
 In winter, fire.

Blest, who can unconcern'dly find
 Hours, days, and years slide soft away
 In health of body, peace of mind,
 Quiet by day,

Sound sleep by night; study and ease
 Together mixed; sweet recreation,
 And innocence, which most does please
 With meditation.

Thus let me live, unseen, unknown;
 Thus unlamented let me die;
 Steal from the world, and not a stone
 Tell where I lie.

Exercise.

548. *Paraphrase* the following poem of Sir Henry Wotton. Proceed as in §547. Change the language, not the thought, of the piece.

THE HAPPY LIFE.

How happy is he born and taught
 That serveth not another's will;
 Whose armor is his honest thought,
 And simple truth his utmost skill;
 Whose passions not his masters are,
 Whose soul is still prepared for death,
 Not tied unto the world with care
 Of public fame, or private breath;
 Who envies none that chance doth raise
 Or vice; who never understood
 How deepest wounds are given by praise;
 Nor rules of state, but rules of good;
 Who hath his life from rumors freed,
 Whose conscience is his strong retreat;
 Whose state can neither flatterers feed,
 Nor ruin make accusers great;
 Who God doth late and early pray
 More of his grace than gifts to lend;
 And entertains the harmless day
 With a well-chosen book or friend;
 This man is freed from servile bands
 Of hope to rise, or fear to fall;
 Lord of himself, though not of lands,
 And having nothing, yet hath all.

549. The principal types of **structural change** to produce variety of expression are :

1. Those grammatical variations already treated, which are involved in the inflection of parts of speech, and in the constitution of the sentence as declarative, interrogative, etc., and as simple, compound, etc.

2. Change of the **rhetorical** for the **grammatical order**.

The grammatical order is an arrangement consisting of (1) the subject and its modifiers, (2) the predicate and its modifiers, (3) the object, and (4) the adverbial phrase. But for reasons of emphasis, elegance, or rhythm, this order is changed in oratory or other lofty prose, and also in poetry.

Exercise.

550. Change the structure of the following sentences by substituting the grammatical for the rhetorical order.

1. Never more shall we behold that generous loyalty, that proud submission, which kept alive the spirit of an exalted freedom!
2. It is gone, that sensibility of principle, that chastity of honor, which felt a stain like a wound.
3. The atrocious crime of being a young man, I shall neither attempt to palliate nor deny.
4. But ah ! him, the first great martyr in this great cause ; him, the premature victim of his own self-devotion ; him, cut off in the hour of overwhelming anxiety and thick gloom !—how shall I struggle with the emotions that stifle the utterance of his name !
5. They could take their rest, for they knew that Stratford watched.
Him they feared, him they trusted, him they obeyed.
6. Sweet was the sound, when oft at evening's close
Up yonder hill the village murmur rose.
7. O, freedom ! if to me belong
Nor mighty Milton's gift divine,
Nor Marvell's wit and graceful song,
Still with a love as deep and strong
As theirs, I lay, like them, my best gifts on thy shrine !
8. On some fond breast the parting soul relies,
Some pious drops the closing eye requires.

9. By foreign hands thy dying eyes were closed.
 10. Under a spreading chestnut-tree
 The village smithy stands ;
 The smith a mighty man is he,
 With large and sinewy hands.

Exercise.

551. Substitute the grammatical for the rhetorical order, supplying ellipses, but retaining, with this exception, the language of the selection.

ANTONY OVER CÆSAR'S BODY.

Here, under leave of Brutus and the rest,
 (For Brutus is an honorable man ;
 So are they all, all honorable men ;)
 Come I to speak in Cæsar's funeral.
 He was my friend, faithful and just to me ;
 But Brutus says he was ambitious ;
 And Brutus is an honorable man.
 He hath brought many captives home to Rome,
 Whose ransoms did the general coffers fill :
 Did this in Cæsar seem ambitious ?
 When that the poor hath cried, Cæsar hath wept ;
 Ambition should be made of sterner stuff ;
 Yet Brutus says, he was ambitious ;
 And Brutus is an honorable man.
 You all did see, that, on the Lupercal,
 I thrice presented him a kingly crown,
 Which he did thrice refuse. Was this ambition ?
 Yet Brutus says he was ambitious,
 And sure, he is an honorable man.
 I speak not to disprove what Brutus spake,
 But here I am to speak what I do know. . . .
 If you have tears, prepare to shed them now.
 You all do know this mantle : I remember
 The first time ever Cæsar put it on :
 'Twas on a summer's evening, in his tent,

That day he overcame the Nervii;
 Look ! in this place, ran Cassius' dagger through;
 See, what a rent the envious Casca made;
 Through this, the well-beloved Brutus stabbed;
 And, as he plucked his cursed steel away,
 Mark how the blood of Cæsar followed it. . . .
 This was the most unkindest cut of all;
 For, when the noble Cæsar saw him stab,
 Ingratitude, more strong than traitors' arms,
 Quite vanquished him, then burst his mighty heart;
 And, in his mantle muffling up his face,
 Great Cæsar fell.

Oh, what a fall was there, my countrymen!
 Then I, and you, and all of us fell down.
 Whilst bloody treason flourished over us. . . .
 They that have done this deed are honorable,
 And will, no doubt, with reason answer you.
 I came not, friends, to steal away your hearts;
 I am no orator, as Brutus is;
 But, as you know me all, a plain, blunt man,
 That love my friend; and that they know full well
 That gave me public leave to speak of him.
 For I have neither wit, nor words, nor worth,
 Action, nor utterance, nor the power of speech,
 To stir men's blood. I only speak right on:
 I tell you that which you yourselves do know;
 Show you sweet Cæsar's wounds, poor, poor, dumb mouths,
 And bid them speak for me. But were I Brutus,
 And Brutus Antony, there were an Antony
 Would ruffle up your spirits, and put a tongue
 In every wound of Cæsar, that should move
 The stones of Rome to rise and mutiny.

LIII. COMPOSITION IN SERIES.

552. Written discourse is generally considered under four heads :

1. **Description,**
2. **Narration,**

3. **Exposition**, and
 4. **Argumentation**.
-

LIV. DESCRIPTION.

553. Description is that form of discourse which explains a particular object not viewed as changing.

The explanation of Chicago as it is now, or as it was at any given time, would be description.

554. Few discourses, however, are entirely descriptive, but they usually contain some narration; and, on the other hand, most narrative discourses contain some description. Yet we should at once classify an historical work as narrative, and a book of travels as descriptive.

The knowledge needed for the best descriptive writing must come from personal observation. **Comparison** of one thing with another naturally suggests itself as a feature of this kind of composition. Adjectives play so important a part that taste may be freely employed in the choice of words. The **arrangement** of the several parts of the discourse may be greatly varied. Obviously, however, an outline of the broader features of anything to be described will precede a representation of the details.

Exercise.

555. The following sketch, by Washington Irving, of a Dutch farmhouse is wholly descriptive. After class-reading and oral review, let the piece be reproduced from memory.

The stronghold of Van Tassell was situated on the banks of the Hudson, in one of those green, sheltered, fertile nooks in which the Dutch farmers are so fond of nestling. A great elm-tree spread its broad branches over it, at the foot of which bubbled up a spring of the softest and sweetest water, in a little well formed of a barrel, and then

stole sparkling away through the grass, to a neighboring brook, that bubbled along among alders and dwarfed willows. Hard by the farmhouse was a vast barn, that might have served as a church, every window and crevice of which seemed bursting forth with the treasures of the farm; the flail was busily resounding within it from morning to night; swallows and martins skimmed twittering about the eaves; and rows of pigeons, some with one eye turned up, as if watching the weather, some with their heads under their wings, or buried in their bosoms, and others swelling and cooing and bowing about their dames, were enjoying the sunshine on the roof.

Sleek, unwieldy porkers were grunting in the repose and abundance of their pens, whence sallied forth, now and then, troops of sucking pigs, as if to snuff the air. A stately squadron of snowy geese were riding in an adjoining pond, convoying whole fleets of ducks; regiments of turkeys were gobbling through the farmyard, and guinea-fowls fretting about it, like ill-tempered housewives, with their peevish, discontented cry.

The dwelling was one of those spacious farmhouses, with high-rigged but lowly-sloping roofs, built in the style handed down from the first Dutch settlers; the low projecting eaves forming a piazza along the front, capable of being closed up in bad weather. Under this were hung flails, harness, various utensils of husbandry, and nets for fishing in the neighboring river. Benches were built along the sides for summer use; and a great spinning-wheel at one end, and a churn at the other, showed the various uses to which this important porch might be devoted. From this piazza the wandering Ichabod entered the hall, which formed the center of the mansion and the place of usual residence. Here, rows of resplendent pewter, ranged on a long dresser, dazzled his eyes. In one corner stood a huge bag of wool ready to be spun; in another, a quantity of linsey-woolsey just from the loom; ears of Indian corn, and strings of dried apples and peaches, hung in gay festoons along the wall, mingled with the gaud of red peppers; and a door left ajar gave him a peep into the best parlor, where the claw-footed chairs and dark mahogany tables shone like mirrors; andirons, with their accompanying shovel and tongs, glistened from their covert of asparagus-tops; mock oranges and conch-shells decorated the mantelpiece; strings of various-colored birds' eggs were suspended above it; a great ostrich-egg was hung from the center of the room; and a corner cupboard, knowingly left open, displayed immense treasures of old silver and well-mended china.

Exercise.

556. Carlyle's sketch of the person of Frederick the Great is a notable piece of description. Proceed as in the last exercise.

He is a king every inch of him, though without the trappings of a king. Presents himself in a Spartan simplicity of vesture : no crown, but an old military cocked hat—generally old, or trampled and kneaded into absolute softness, if new;—no sceptre but one like Agamemnon's, a walking-stick cut from the woods, which serves also as a riding-stick; and for royal robes, a mere soldier's blue coat with red facings,—coat likely to be old, and sure to have a good deal of Spanish snuff on the breast of it; rest of the apparel dim, unobtrusive in color or cut, ending in high over-knee military boots, which may be brushed (and, I hope, kept soft with an underhand suspicion of oil), but are not permitted to be blackened or varnished.

The man is not of god-like physiognomy, any more than of imposing stature or costume: close-shut mouth with thin lips, prominent jaws and nose, receding brow, by no means of Olympian height; head, however, is of long form, and has superlative gray eyes in it. Not what is called a beautiful man; nor yet, by all appearance, what is called a happy. On the contrary, the face bears evidence of many sorrows, as they are termed, of much hard labor done in this world, and seems to anticipate nothing but more still coming. Quiet stoicism, capable enough of what joys there were, but not expecting any worth mention; great unconscious and some conscious pride, well tempered with a cheery mockery of humor, are written on that old face, which carries its chin well forward, in spite of the slight stoop about the neck; nose, rather flung into the air, under its old cocked hat, like an old snuffy lion on the watch; and such a pair of eyes as no man, or lion, or lynx of that century bore elsewhere, according to all the testimony we have. Most excellent, potent, brilliant eyes, swift-darting as the stars, steadfast as the sun; gray, we said, of the azure-gray color; large enough, not of glaring size; the habitual expression of them vigilance and penetrating sense. The voice, if he speak to you, is of similar physiognomy: clear, melodious, and sonorous; all tones are in it, from that of ingenuous inquiry, graceful sociality, light-flowing banter (rather prickly for most part), up to definite word of command, up to desolating word of rebuke and reprobation.

Exercise.

557. In this piece Aldrich describes the mechanical part of the sculptor's work. Proceed as in the last exercises.

THE MAKING OF A PIECE OF STATUARY.

On a tall circular table, the top of which revolves easily on a pivot, the sculptor first erects what is called a skeleton. This is simply an upright of wood, the height and thickness of which are determined by the size of the work proposed.

The upright passes perpendicularly through the bust to give strength to the neck; a cross-piece serves to support the shoulders. This slight frame being fastened securely to the table, the sculptor builds up around the cross with modeling clay a rough imitation of the human head and shoulders.

With a hundred little wooden tools of all sorts of shapes, the sculptor goes to work, scraping off a bit of clay here, sticking on a piece there, now punching the thing with his thumb, now raking it with a kind of wooden tooth-brush, till after a while—say an hour or so—this lump of inanimate clay begins to assume an absurd resemblance to the person whose likeness is being taken.

This is the first sitting. Day after day the work goes on, the sitter growing more tired, the sculptor more interested, and the bust more life-like; until, gazing on the motionless face, the story of Pygmalion, who modeled a statue with such wonderful skill that it came to life one day, seems after all not to be so very improbable a legend.

We will suppose the bust completed in clay. This, to us, is its most interesting stage. The clay bears the real touches of the sculptor: it is a creation fresh from his own hand. Moreover, his work generally ends here. From the clay model is made a plaster cast or mold, and of course in obtaining this mold the model is destroyed. After the plaster bust is cast, it is placed in the hands of a workman, who executes an exact copy of it in marble.

 Exercise.

558. The following characterization of Lincoln occurs in Lowell's *Commemoration Ode*:

Nature, they say, doth dote,
 And can not make a man
 Save on some worn-out plan,
 Repeating us by rote.
 For *him* her Old-World molds aside she threw,
 And, choosing sweet clay from the breast
 Of the unexhausted West,
 With stuff untainted shaped a hero new,
 Wise, steadfast in the strength of God, and true.
 How beautiful to see
 Once more a shepherd of mankind indeed,
 Who loved his charge, but never loved to lead:
 One whose meek flock the people joyed to be,
 Not lured by any cheat of birth,
 But by his clear-grained human worth,
 And brave old wisdom of sincerity. . . .

His was no lonely mountain-peak of mind,
 Thrusting to thin air o'er our cloudy bars,
 A sea-mark now, now lost in vapors blind;
 Broad prairie rather, genial, level-lined,
 Fruitful and friendly for all human kind,
 Yet also nigh to heaven and loved of loftiest stars.
 Nothing of Europe here,
 Or, then, of Europe fronting mornward still,
 Ere any names of serf and peer
 Could Nature's equal scheme deface;
 Here was a type of the true elder race,
 And one of Plutarch's men talked with us face to face.

 He knew to bide his time,
 And can his fame abide,
 Still patient in his simple faith sublime,
 Till the wise years decide.
 Great captains with their guns and drums,
 Disturb our judgment for the hour,
 But at last silence comes;
 These all are gone, and, standing like a tower,

Our children shall behold his fame,
 The kindly-earnest, brave, foreseeing man,
 Sagacious, patient, dreading praise, not blame,
 New birth of our new soil—the first American.

Suggestions for Descriptive Composition.

559. 1. The physical features of the State you live in.
 (Consult your text-book.)

2. The structure and functions of the eye, the lungs, or any other bodily organ.

3. The appearance of this class-room.

4. The qualities and uses of any object or utensil that is familiar to all.

LV. NARRATION.

560. Narration is that form of discourse which explains a particular object viewed as changing.

It deals with events happening one after another in time, and the mind is concentrated on the **change**.

If, in explaining the city of Chicago, the writer tells of its first settlement; its growth into a village; into a city; its partial destruction by fire; its rebuilding; its rapid extension since, etc., his explanation takes the form of narration.

It is evident, therefore, that descriptive language has a necessary place in narration.

561. There are two prime requisites to excellence in narrative, as in any other kind of composition:

1. **The theme** or subject written about, **must be known**, must be familiar to the writer. It should be thought about, talked about, and mastered, before it is written about.

2. **The theme should excite the interest** of the writer. The things we like to do are the things we do best. Healthful action is pleasurable.

Exercise.

562. In the selection which follows, Franklin narrates his first experiences in Philadelphia.

I walked up the street, gazing about, till, near the market-house, I met a boy with bread. I had made many a meal on bread, and, inquiring where he got it, I went immediately to the baker's he directed me to, in Second Street, and asked for biscuit, intending such as we had in Boston; but they, it seems, were not made in Philadelphia. Then I asked for a threepenny loaf, and was told they had none such. So, not considering or knowing the difference of money, and the greater cheapness nor the names of his bread, I bade him give me threepenny-worth of any sort. He gave me, accordingly, three great puffy rolls. I was surprised at the quantity, but took it, and, having no room in my pockets, walked off with a roll under each arm, and eating the other.

Thus I went up Market Street as far as Fourth Street, passing by the door of Mr. Read, my future wife's father; when she, standing at the door, saw me, and thought I made, as I certainly did, a most awkward, ridiculous appearance. Then I turned and went down Chestnut Street, and part of Walnut Street, eating my roll all the way, and, coming round, found myself again at Market Street wharf, near the boat I came in, to which I went for a draught of the river water; and, being filled with one of my rolls, gave the other two to a woman and her child that came down the river in the boat with us, and were waiting to go farther.

Thus refreshed, I walked again up the street, which by this time had many clean-dressed people in it, who were all walking the same way. I joined them, and thereby was led into the great meeting-house of the Quakers, near the market. I sat down among them, and, after looking round awhile and hearing nothing said, being very drowsy, through labor and want of rest the preceding night, I fell fast asleep, and continued so till the meeting broke up, when one was kind enough to rouse me. This was, therefore, the first house I was in, or slept in, in Philadelphia.

Exercise.

563. The following, "The Wreck of the Hesperus," by Longfellow, is a good illustration of narration :

It was the schooner Hesperus
That sailed the wintry sea;
And the skipper had taken his little daughter,
To bear him company.

Blue were her eyes as the fairy-flax,
Her cheeks like the dawn of day,
And her bosom white as the hawthorn buds
That ope in the month of May.

The skipper he stood beside the helm,
His pipe was in his mouth,
And he watched how the veering flaw did blow
The smoke now west, now south.

Then up and spake an old sailor,
Had sailed the Spanish Main,
"I pray thee put into yonder port,
For I fear a hurricane.

"Last night the moon had a golden ring,
And to-night no moon we see!"
The skipper he blew a whiff from his pipe,
And a scornful laugh laughed he.

Colder and louder blew the wind,
A gale from the northeast ;
The snow fell hissing in the brine,
And the billows frothed like yeast.

Down came the storm, and smote amain
The vessel in its strength;
She shuddered and paused, like a frightened steed,
Then leaped her cable's length.

“Come hither ! come hither ! my little daughter,
And do not tremble so ;
For I can weather the roughest gale
That ever wind did blow.”

He wrapped her warm in his seaman’s coat
Against the stinging blast ;
He cut a rope from a broken spar,
And bound her to the mast.

“O father ! I hear the church-bells ring,
O say what may it be ?”
“’T is a fog-bell on a rock-bound coast !”
And he steered for the open sea.

“O father ! I hear the sound of guns,
O say what may it be ?”
“Some ship in distress, that can not live
In such an angry sea !”

“O father ! I see a gleaming light.
O say what may it be ?”
But the father answered never a word,—
A frozen corpse was he.

Lashed to the helm, all stiff and stark,
With his face turned to the skies,
The lantern gleamed through the gleaming snow
On his fixed and glassy eyes.

Then the maiden clasped her hands and prayed
That savèd she might be ;
And she thought of Christ, who stilled the wave
On the Lake of Galilee.

And fast through the midnight dark and drear,
Through the whistling sleet and snow,
Like a sheeted ghost, the vessel swept
Towards the reef of Norman’s Woe.

And ever the fitful gusts between
 A sound came from the land ;
 It was the sound of the trampling surf,
 On the rocks and the hard sea-sand.

The breakers were right beneath her bows,
 She drifted a dreary wreck,
 And a whooping billow swept the crew
 Like icicles from her deck.

She struck where the white and fleecy waves
 Looked soft as carded wool,
 But the cruel rocks, they gored her side
 Like the horns of an angry bull.

Her rattling shrouds, all sheathed in ice,
 With the masts went by the board ;
 Like a vessel of glass, she stove and sank,—
 Ho! ho! the breakers roared !

At daybreak, on the bleak sea-beach,
 A fisherman stood aghast,
 To see the form of a maiden fair
 Lashed close to a drifting mast.

The salt sea was frozen on her breast,
 The salt tears in her eyes ;
 And he saw her hair, like the brown sea-weed,
 On the billows fall and rise.

Such was the wreck of the Hesperus,
 In the midnight and the snow !
 Christ save us all from a death like this,
 On the reef of Norman's Woe!

Exercise.

564. The following extract is from Robertson's account of the discovery of America:

About two hours before midnight, Columbus, standing on the fore-castle, observed a light at a distance, and privately pointed it out to Pedro Gutierrez, a page of the queen's wardrobe. Gutierrez perceived it, and calling to Salcedo, comptroller of the fleet, all three saw it in motion, as if it were carried from place to place. A little after midnight, the joyful sound of "Land! land!" was heard from the *Pinta*, which kept always ahead of the other ships. But having been so often deceived by fallacious appearances, every man was now become slow of belief, and waited in all the anguish of uncertainty and impatience for the return of day.

As soon as morning dawned, all doubts and fears were dispelled. From every ship an island was seen about two leagues to the north, whose flat and verdant fields, well stored with wood, and watered with many rivulets, presented the aspect of a delightful country. The crew of the *Pinta* instantly began the *Te Deum*, as a hymn of thanksgiving to God, and were joined by those of the other ships with tears of joy and transports of congratulation. This office of gratitude to Heaven was followed by an act of justice to their commander. They threw themselves at the feet of Columbus, with feelings of self-condemnation, mingled with reverence. They implored him to pardon their ignorance, incredulity, and insolence, which had created him so much unnecessary disquiet, and had so often obstructed the prosecution of his well-concerted plan; and passing, in the warmth of their admiration, from one extreme to another, they now pronounced the man whom they had so lately reviled and threatened, to be a person inspired by Heaven with sagacity and fortitude more than human, in order to accomplish a design so far beyond the ideas and conception of former ages.

As soon as the sun arose, all their boats were manned and armed. They rowed towards the island with their colors displayed, with warlike music, and other martial pomp. As they approached the coast, they saw it covered with a multitude of people, whom the novelty of the spectacle had drawn together, whose attitudes and gestures expressed wonder and astonishment at the strange objects which presented themselves to their view. Columbus was the first European who set foot on the New World which he had discovered. He landed in a rich dress, and with a naked sword in his hand. His men followed, and, kneeling down, they all kissed the ground which they had so long desired to see. They next erected a crucifix, and, prostrating themselves before it, returned thanks to God for conducting their voyage to such a happy issue. They then took solemn possession of

the country for the crown of Castile and Leon, with all the formalities which the Portuguese were accustomed to observe in acts of this kind in their new discoveries.

Exercise.

565. Reduce this story in verse to the prose form. Reproduce from memory, proceeding as in previous exercises.

A LEAP FOR LIFE.

Old Ironsides at anchor lay,
 In the harbor of Mahon ;
 A dead calm rested on the bay,
 The waves to sleep had gone—
 When little Hal, the captain's son,
 A lad both brave and good,
 In sport, up shroud and rigging ran,
 And on the main-truck stood !

A shudder shot through every vein,
 All eyes were turned on high.
 There stood the boy, with dizzy brain,
 Between the sea and sky ;
 No hold had he above, below,
 Alone he stood in air.
 To that far height none dared to go ;
 No aid could reach him there.

We gazed—but not a man could speak !
 With horror all aghast,
 In groups, with pallid brow and cheek,
 We watched the quivering mast.
 The atmosphere grew thick and hot,
 And of a lurid hue,
 As riveted unto the spot
 Stood officers and crew.

The father came on deck : he gasped,
 “ O God ! thy will be done ! ”
 Then suddenly a rifle grasped,
 And aimed it at his son :

“ Jump far out, boy, into the wave!
Jump, or I fire ! ” he said;
“ That only chance thy life can save!
Jump ! jump, boy ! ” He obeyed.

He sunk—he rose—he lived—he moved—
And for the ship struck out;
On board, we hailed the lad beloved,
With many a manly shout.
His father drew, in silent joy,
Those wet arms round his neck;
Then folded to his heart his boy,
And fainted on the deck.

Exercise.

566. This selection from Goldsmith's works is partly narrative and partly descriptive. Proceed as in previous exercises.

I perceived, about four years ago, a large spider, in one corner of my room, making its web, and, though the maid frequently leveled her fatal broom against the labors of the little animal, I had the good fortune then to prevent its destruction, and I may say it more than paid me by the entertainment it afforded.

In three days the web was with incredible diligence completed; nor could I avoid thinking that the insect seemed to exult in its new abode. It frequently traversed it round, examined the strength of every part of it, retired into its hole, and came out very frequently. The first enemy, however, it had to encounter was another and a much larger spider, which having no web of its own, and having probably exhausted all its stock in former labors of this kind, came to invade the property of its neighbor. Soon, then, a terrible encounter ensued, in which the invader seemed to have the victory, and the laborious spider was obliged to take refuge in its hole. Upon this I perceived the victor using every art to draw the enemy from his stronghold. He seemed to go off, but quickly returned, and when he found all arts vain, began to demolish the new web without mercy. This brought on another battle, and contrary to my expectations, the laborious spider became conqueror, and fairly killed his antagonist.

Now then, in peaceable possession of what was justly its own, it waited three days with the utmost impatience, repairing the breaches of its web, and taking no sustenance that I could perceive. At last, however, a large blue fly fell into the snare, and struggled hard to get loose. The spider gave it leave to entangle itself as much as possible, but it seemed to be too strong for the cobweb. I must own I was greatly surprised when I saw the spider immediately sally out, and in less than a minute weave a new net round its captive, by which the motion of its wings was stopped, and when it was fairly hampered in this manner, it was seized and dragged into the hole.

In this manner it lived, in a precarious state, and Nature seemed to have fitted it for such a life ; for upon a single fly it subsisted for more than a week. I once put a wasp into the nest, but when the spider came out in order to seize it as usual, upon perceiving what kind of an enemy it had to deal with, it instantly broke all the bands that held it fast, and contributed all that lay in its power to disengage so formidable an antagonist. When the wasp was at liberty, I expected the spider would have set about repairing the breaches that were made in its net ; but those it seems were irreparable, wherefore the cobweb was now entirely forsaken, and a new one begun, which was completed in the usual time.

I had now a mind to try how many cobwebs a single spider could furnish ; wherefore I destroyed this, and the insect set about another. When I destroyed the other also, its whole stock seemed entirely exhausted, and it could spin no more. The arts it made use of to support itself, now deprived of its great means of subsistence, were indeed surprising. I have seen it roll up its legs like a ball, and lie motionless for hours together, but cautiously watching all the time ; when a fly happened to approach sufficiently near, it would dart out all at once, and often seize its prey.

Of this life, however, it soon began to grow weary, and resolved to invade the possession of some other spider, since it could not make a web of its own. It formed an attack upon a neighboring fortification with great vigor, and at first was as vigorously repulsed. Not daunted, however, with one defeat, in this manner it continued to lay siege to another's web for three days, and at length, having killed the defendant, actually took possession.

When smaller flies happen to fall into the snare, the spider does not sally out at once, but very patiently waits till it is sure of them ; for should it immediately approach, the terror of its appearance might give

the captive strength sufficient to get loose ; its habit then is to wait patiently, till, by useless struggles, the captive has wasted all its strength, and then it becomes a certain and easy conquest.

The insect I am now describing lived three years ; every year it changed its skin and got a new set of legs. I have sometimes plucked off a leg, which grew again in two or three days. At first it dreaded my approach to its web ; but at last it became so familiar as to take a fly out of my hand, and upon my touching any part of the web, would immediately leave its hole, prepared either for defence or an attack.

Exercise.

567. The following extract from De Foe combines narration of experiences with descriptive passages. Make endeavor, in the reproduction, to use English as direct and simple as that of the text.

I had now a great employment on my hands—to make, by some means or other, some earthen vessels. These I sorely needed, but could not think how to make them. However, remembering the heat of the climate, I felt sure that if I could find the right sort of clay I should be able to shape some rough pots out of it, and dry them in the sun. These would be hard enough and strong enough to bear handling, and would hold any thing that was dry, such as corn and meal.

It would make you pity me, or rather laugh at me, to know how many awkward ways I took to raise this paste: what odd, misshapen, ugly things I made; how many of them fell in, and how many fell out, the clay not being stiff enough to bear its own weight; how some cracked by the great heat of the sun, and how others crumbled into dust the moment I touched them.

In short, after having labored hard for two months to find the right kind of clay,—to dig it, to bring it home, and to shape it,—I had only two great ugly earthen things, not worthy to be called jars. When the sun had baked these two very dry and hard, I lifted them up very gently, and set them down again in two large wicker baskets which I had made on purpose for them, that they might not break. Between the jars and baskets there was a little room to spare, and this I stuffed full of barley straw. “These two jars,” I thought, “will hold my dry corn, and perhaps the meal when the corn is bruised.”

Though I had been so unfortunate with the large jars, yet I made several smaller things with better success,—such as little flat dishes, pitchers, and pipkins, and any things my hands turned to,—and these the heat of the sun baked as hard as I could wish. Still, none of these answered my purpose, which was to get an earthen vessel that would hold liquids, and bear the heat of a fire. Now, it happened one day that I made a hotter fire than usual for cooking my meat; and when I went to put it out, after I had done with it, I found in the ashes a broken piece of one of my earthenware vessels, burnt as hard as a stone and as red as a tile. I was agreeably surprised to see it, and said to myself that certainly these vessels might be made to burn whole if they would burn broken. And this set me to studying how I could arrange my fire so as to accomplish this.

I had no notion of a kiln, such as potters use, nor of glazing the pots with lead, although I had some lead; but I placed three large pipkins and two or three jars in a pile, one upon another, and heaped my fire-wood all round them, with a great heap of embers underneath. The fire I plied with fresh fuel round the outside and on the top, till I saw the jars inside were red-hot through and through, and I observed that they did not crack at all. When I saw that they were clear red I let them stand in that heat for five or six hours.

At last I found that one of the jars, though it did not crack, had begun to melt or run. The sand which was mixed with the clay had melted by the violence of the heat, and would have run into glass if I had gone on. So I slacked my fire gradually till the earthenware began to lose its red color; and watching all night—lest the fire should die out too fast—I had in the morning three very good pipkins, and two jars, as hard burnt as could be desired, and one of them perfectly glazed with the melted sand.

Suggestions for Narrative Composition.

568. INDIVIDUAL EXERCISES.

1. The most remarkable thing that ever happened to you.
2. Yesterday's events in your own experience.
3. Your earliest recollections.
4. Any striking incident that you have witnessed.

569. FOR CLASS COMPARISON.

1. Jackson's Victory at New Orleans. (Consult your text-book.)
 2. An epitome of *Robinson Crusoe*, Part I.
 3. Any chapter in United States history, abridged.
 4. The reproduction of any narrative that occurs in class-reading.
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LVI. EXPOSITION.

570. Exposition is that form of discourse in which principles are discussed and expounded and conclusions reached by reasoning. Under this head are included writings in science, philosophy, logic, school text-books, etc. Persuasion is exposition addressed specially to the emotions. Poetry and oratory are included under this head.

In exposition the nature of a **general idea** is explained. By a **general idea** is meant one which applies to each one of a class of objects.

The two principal methods of explaining the nature of the general idea are **clear definition**, and careful division into the **classes** which it includes. A good definition establishes the place of the thing defined by putting it into the smallest class of which it is a part.

Other aids in exposition are **comparison** and **contrast**.

No more specific directions can well be given for the study of these forms of Exposition, as the treatment is largely determined by each author for himself.

Exercise.

571. The following example of exposition is taken from Dana's *Geology*. Decide upon the general idea and purpose of the selection.

DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN AN ANIMAL AND A PLANT.

1. AN ANIMAL.—An animal is a living being, sustained by nutriment taken into an internal cavity or stomach, through an opening called the mouth. It is capable of perceiving the existence of other objects, through one or more senses. It has (except in some of the lowest species) a head, which is the chief seat of the power of voluntary motion, and which contains the mouth. It is fundamentally a fore-and-aft structure, the head being the anterior extremity, and it is typically forward-moving. With its growth from the germ, there is an increase in mechanical power until the adult size is reached. In the processes of respiration and growth, it gives out carbonic acid and uses oxygen.

2. A PLANT.—A plant is a living being sustained by nutriment taken up externally by leaves and roots. It is incapable of perception, having no senses. It has no head, no power of voluntary motion, no mouth. It is fundamentally an up-and-down structure, and, with few exceptions, fixed. In its growth from the germ or seed, there is no increase in mechanical power. In the process of growth, it gives out oxygen and uses carbonic acid.

Exercise.

572. The following is an extract from the works of Horace Bushnell. Proceed as before.

There are many who will be ready to think that light is a very tame and feeble instrument because it is noiseless. An earthquake, for example, is to them a much more vigorous and effective agency. Hear how it comes thundering through the solid foundations of nature. It rocks a whole continent. The noblest works of man, cities, monuments, and temples, are in a moment leveled to the ground or swallowed down in the opening gulfs of fire.

Little do they think that the light of every morning, the soft and silent light, is an agent many times more powerful. But let the light of the morning cease and return no more; let the hour of morning come and bring with it no dawn—the outcries of a horror-stricken world fill the air, and make, as it were, the darkness audible. The beasts go wild and frantic at the loss of the sun. The vegetable growths turn pale and die. A chill creeps on, and frosty winds begin

to howl across the freezing earth. Colder, yet colder, is the night. The vital blood, at length, of all creatures, stops, congealed.

Down goes the frost to the earth's center. The heart of the sea is frozen ; nay, the earthquakes are themselves frozen in under their fiery caverns. The very globe itself, too, and all his fellow-planets that have lost their sun, are become mere balls of ice, swinging silent in the darkness.

Such is the light that revisits us in the silence of the morning. It makes no shock or scar. It would not awake an infant in the cradle. And yet it perpetually new-creates the world, rescuing it each morning as a prey to night and chaos.

LVII. ARGUMENTATION.

573. Argumentation is that form of discourse in which a proposition is made and the grounds for the assertion are given.

The **main purpose** of a writer of such discourse is always to convince the reader or hearer of the truth of the proposition. This main purpose may be the only one ; but in many cases it is also desired that through argumentation feeling may be influenced, or action may be produced.

Examples of argumentative discourse are usually found in sermons, lectures, trials, debates, etc.

Exercise.

574. The following extract is taken from a debate, and is a good example of argumentation :

If I wished to give a distinct notion of the difference in signification between the words *ingenious* and *ingenuous*, I think I might safely say, that, in this discussion, thus far the arguments *for* the country have been *ingenuous*, while the answers to them have been *ingenious*.

The country, says the first speaker, in substance, abounds in scenes and objects fitted to awaken admiration, and turn the thoughts of men

toward their Creator. It differs from the city, in being the *natural*, instead of the *artificial* dwelling-place of man, and is, therefore, better adapted to the development of his mental and moral character.

Now, this is a plain and *ingenuous* statement of truth ; powerful, indeed, but only powerful, because it is true. But how is it answered? "Oh," says the next speaker, "that's all *fancy!* Men soon become indifferent to the impressions of external grandeur. These things may be *fitted* to excite sublime sentiments and holy affections, but they seldom *do* ; for men are apt to pass them by unheeded."

Then the whole argument is dismissed with a fine flourish of words about people walking among the Alps, as they would among common hills, and riding on the waves of the ocean as thoughtlessly as they would on the gently ruffled surface of a tranquil lake. In all this, the real point, on which the argument was obviously meant to turn, viz. : the *comparative* influence of city and country scenes and objects on man's moral nature, is quite overlooked. Now, sir, this may be considered *ingenious*, but it is far from being *ingenuous*.

575. The following is an extract from a sermon on "The Physician of the Future," by Peter Stryker :

Let us advance a step. Should not the family doctor be a *teacher*? Occasionally we meet with a physician who is apparently quite jealous of his professional title, and is a little uncomfortable because the same term is accorded to a clergyman. He seems to think the medical practitioner is the only one who should be called a doctor. But we beg our friends of the healing art to note that the word doctor means a teacher. Such all pastors are, especially if they are faithful men, and such physicians usually are not. Evidently when they were first called doctors—I do not know when that was—the healing men were expected to give instruction to their patients how to overcome disease, and how to prevent it. Would not this be better now than simply to look at the tongue, feel the pulse, write a prescription, and bolt out of the door? Occasionally a physician, especially if he has an intelligent patient, stops a few minutes and tells him something about the state of his person, and the remedy he needs for his bodily ailments. But, if he does, very likely it will be in such professional terms that the sick man is bewildered, and feels that he knows about as much after the interview as before. If he is not very seriously ill he may be amused, and in that way benefited.

LVIII. LETTER-WRITING.

576. The greater part of all composition takes the form of letter-writing. The possible themes and methods of correspondence are as various as human interests are diverse ; but, for the mechanical structure of the letter, custom has established certain set forms which are few in number.

The letter proper * consists of six easily distinguishable parts, as follows :

1. The **heading**, which gives the place where, and the time when, the letter is written.
2. The **address**, which gives the name, title, and residence or place of business of the person or persons to whom the letter is sent.
3. The **salutation**, or greeting, which is familiar or formal, according as the relations between writer and recipient are intimate or ceremonious.
4. The **body**, which is the message, or substance of the letter.
5. The **complimentary close**, which corresponds as to the formality with the terms of the salutation.
6. The **signature**, or name of the writer.

577. The **place** named in the heading, and the **signature** at the end of the letter, should be plainly and fully set forth in all formal letters, so that when taken together they may constitute the explicit address of a letter written in reply.

578. The **address** is sometimes put last, and at the left of the signature.

579. Upon the envelope is written the **superscription**, which should be a copy of the **address** of the letter enclosed.

* Notes of social ceremony, written in the third person, are often printed according to formula, and are not considered under this head.

A FORMAL LETTER.

(Heading.)

14 Johnson St.,
Boston, Mass.,
June 4, 1891.

(Address.)

Messrs. Brown, Smith & Co.,
2943 Broadway, N. Y. City.

(Salutation.)

Gentlemen :

(Body.)

Mr. John Jones, of Bloomfield,
Iowa, refers us to you for information as to
his business responsibility. Any advice on
this subject that you may be able to give us
will be much appreciated by

(Close.)

Yours respectfully,

(Signature.)

William Smith.

THE REPLY.

(Heading.)

2943 Broadway, N. Y. City,

June 5, 1891.

(Salutation.)

Dear Sir:

(Body.)

In reply to your inquiry of yesterday, we beg leave to say that we have had dealings with Mr. Jones for the last ten years, and that we should be glad to extend him credit for any amount.

(Close.)

Yours respectfully,

(Signature.)

Brown, Smith & Co.

(Address.)

Mr. William Smith,

14 Johnson St.,

Boston, Mass.

A LETTER OF INTIMACY.

(Heading.)

Philadelphia, Penn.,

Aug. 14, 1891.

(Salutation.)

My dear Father:

(Body.)

*You will be glad to learn
that since you have been absent from home,
etc., etc., etc.*

(Close.)

Your affectionate daughter,

(Signature.)

Rachel.

Note that in this letter the *heading* is incomplete, and that the *address* is omitted, as being formal and unnecessary.

580. The **titles** most used are *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Master*, *Miss*, and *Messrs.* *Master* is the title of a lad, and *Miss* of a young or of an unmarried lady. The titles *Miss* and *Mrs.* should be inclosed in curves and prefixed to the signature of any letter written by a lady to a stranger, as a guide to the proper addressing of a reply. *Messrs.* is a title to be prefixed to the name of a business firm, or to the names of any number of associated gentlemen.

Among professional titles are *Prof.*, for one who is or has been a college professor ; *Dr.* or *M.D.*, for a physician ; and *Rev.*, for a clergyman.

Hon. is prefixed to the name of any important public official, but is purely a title of courtesy. The President of the United States, needing no title but that of his office, is so addressed. *Esq.*, originally the title of a landed proprietor and magistrate, having lost its appropriate meaning by indiscriminate compliment, is in this country falling into disuse.

581. The **salutations** most commonly used are *Sir*, *Dear Sir*, *Rev. Dear Sir*, *My Dear Friend*, *Gentlemen*, *Madam*, *Dear Madam*, *Ladies*. *Madam* is a proper form of salutation for both married and unmarried ladies. In letters of intimate intercourse, *Sir*, *Madam*, *Friend*, etc., naturally give place to names and titles of kinship or affection ; as,

Dear John, *My Dear Father*, etc.

582. The **complimentary close** should correspond in its nature with the salutation. A variety of forms may be used ; as,

Yours truly, *Yours sincerely*, *Yours very truly*, *Very truly yours*, *Yours respectfully*, *Respectfully yours*, *Your obedient servant*, *Sincerely yours*, *Your friend*, *Your affectionate son*, *With sincere regards*, etc.

Exercise.

583. Write and arrange in suitable relative positions (see letters, pp. 26-2264) the heading, address, salutation, close, and signature of a letter to :

1. A business firm.
 2. An intimate friend.
 3. Your teacher.
-

Exercise.

584. Fill in the framework :

(1) Of your letter to an intimate friend with an invitation to visit you.

(2) Of your letter to your teacher with a statement of any difficulties that you find in this exercise, or have found in those which have preceded it.

585. Suggestions of Subjects for Letter-Writing.

1. To the **librarian**, returning a certain book, and asking that another book (named) shall be sent to you "by the bearer."
2. To the **publishers** of *Harper's Magazine*, ordering that periodical to be sent to the (given) address of some friend of yours.
3. To your **brother**, who is absent from home, a letter written on the occasion of sending to him a birthday gift.
4. To a **friend** in New York, an invitation to visit you at your home. Describe your home, the town you live in, and the country round about it.
5. To **yourself**, a reproduction from memory of the most interesting letter you have ever received.

PROSODY.

LIX. PRINCIPLES OF VERSIFICATION.

586. In the preceding pages, speech has been treated as having its unit in the sentence.

The ordinary statement of thought in correctly constructed sentences is called **prose**.

587. There is another mode of expression, by which sentences are made to please the ear by a melodious flow or measured step.

The following is a compound sentence in prose :

The weary plowman plods his way homeward, and leaves the world to darkness and to me.

It will be observed that the words of the second clause have a musical, or measured, step which does not characterize the first clause. This feature may be illustrated by placing an accent after some of the syllables to indicate a stress of voice, and a vertical line to indicate a slight pause ; as,

And leaves' | the world' | to dark' | ness and' | to me'.

The first clause can not be made to run in the same measured way, except by placing an awkward accent on the last syllable of *homeward*. The words must be differently arranged. Place *homeward* before the verb which it modifies, and make *weary* an attributive modifier of *way* ; then we have :

The plow' | man home' | ward plods' | his wea' | ry way',
And leaves' | the world' | to dark' | ness and' | to me'.

588. The process of arranging words of sentences ac-

ording to accent, so as to give them a measured step, is called **versification** ; and the rules which govern the process constitute what is called **prosody**.

589. A **foot** consists of two or three syllables grouped according to accent. The arrangement of feet makes the measured steps of verse or poetry.

590. A **verse** is a single line containing a certain number of feet.

591. A **stanza** is a distinct division of a poem, or a regular group of lines, or verses, as each group of four lines in Gray's *Elegy*.

592. **Rhyme** is a similarity of sound in the last syllables of two or more lines ; as,

And every shepherd tells his *tale*
Under the hawthorn in the *dale*.

593. **Blank verse** is versification in which the last syllables of lines do not rhyme.

Meter, or measure, refers to number and kind of feet.

The **kind of foot** that prevails in a line gives name to the **verse**, and the **number** of feet decides the **meter**.

594. The feet containing **two syllables** are :

The **iambus**, with the accent on the second syllable of the foot ; as,

Thrice wel' | come dar' | ling of' | the spring' !

The **trochee**, with the accent on the first syllable ; as,

Best' and | bright' est | come' a | way.

The **pyrrhic**, with unaccented syllables ; not much used.

The **spondee**, with both syllables accented ; not much used.

595. The feet containing **three syllables** are :

The **dactyl**, with the accent on the first syllable ; as,

O'ver the | moun'tains and | o'ver the | moor'.

The **amphibrach**, with the accent on the second syllable ; seldom used.

The **anapest**, with the accent on the third syllable ; as,

I am mon' | arch of all' | I survey'.

The **tribrach**, with neither syllable accented ; seldom used.

596. The **meter** is decided by the number of feet in a line, or verse, and is conveniently expressed by names borrowed from the Greek.

A verse of one foot is a **monometer** ; of two feet is a **dimeter** ; of three feet a **trimeter** ; of four feet a **tetrameter** ; of five feet a **pentameter** ; of six feet an **hexameter** ; of seven feet an **heptameter** ; of eight feet an **octometer**.

597. **Iambic verse** consists of the following measures :

Iambic monometer, having lines of one iambic foot ; as,

consent'
repent'

Iambic dimeter, with two iambic feet in a line ; as,

There is' | a calm'
For those' | who weep'.

Iambic trimeter, with three iambs in a line ; as,

He heard' | the min' | strel sing'.

Iambic tetrameter, with four iambs in a line ; the long meter of sacred hymns ; as,

I long' | to lay' | this ach' | ing head'.

Iambic pentameter, with five iambs in a line, called **heroic measure**. This is the meter in which Milton's *Paradise Lost* and Gray's *Elegy* are written ; as,

Yet once' | again' | farewell' | thou min' | strel harp'.

Iambic hexameter, with six iambs in a line, called **Alexandrine** ; as,

That like' | a wound' | ed snake' | drags his' | slow length' | along'.

Iambic heptameter, with seven iambs in a line, and, when divided into lines of four and three feet alternately, the "common meter" of hymns ; as,

O, for' | a clo' | ser walk' | with God',
A calm' | and heav' | enly frame'.

598. Anapestic verse consists of the following measures :

Anapestic monometer, with one anapestic foot in a line ; as,

Do thou keep'
While I sleep'.

Anapestic dimeter, with two anapestic feet in a line ; as,

For the an' | gel of death'
Spread his wings' | on the blast'.

Anapestic trimeter, with three anapestics in a line ; as,

I am mon' | arch of all' | I survey'.

Anapestic tetrameter, with four anapestics in a line ; as,

There is not' | in the wide' | world a val' | ley so sweet'.

599. Dactylic verse consists of the following measures :

Dactylic monometer, with one dactyl in a line ; as,

Come' and reign
O'ver us.

Dactylic dimeter, with two dactyls in a line ; as,

Come' thou Al | might'y King.

Dactylic trimeter, with three dactyls in a line ; as,

March' to the | bat'tle field | fear'-less-ly.

Dactylic tetrameter, with four dactyls in a line ; as,

Thou' who al | might'y art | now' rule in | ev'ry heart.

In iambic, trochaic and anapestic verses, an additional syllable is often added to the end of a line.

600. Mixed feet.—Verse is frequently composed of lines of different measures, and of different feet in the same line :

Spondee and iambus ; as,

Forbear' | great' man' | in arms' | renowned'.

Trochee and iambus ; as,

Ty'-rant | and slave' | those names' | of hate'.

Iambus and anapest ; as,

My sor' | rows I then' | might as-suage'.

601. Poetic Pause.—At the close of each line there is generally a slight pause to mark the melody, and, in rhyme, the harmony also.

Near the middle of each line there is a pause, called the *cæsuræ*, and sometimes one or two other pauses, called *demi-cæsuræ* ; as,

He is gone | on the mountain,

He is lost | to the forest.

There came || to the beach | a poor exile || of Erin.

602. Poetic License.—In poetry more latitude, in the use of words and in construction, is allowed than in prose.

Words are sometimes contracted ; as,

Morn for *morning* ; *th'* for *the* ; *e'er* for *ever*.

Words are more freely omitted ; as,

Is there aught in sleep (that) can calm the sense.
Angels could (do) no more.

Obsolete words, or such as have passed into disuse, are sometimes used ; as,

Erst for *formerly*. *It likes me* for *I like*. *yclept* for *named*.

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